



GRADE 11

HISTORY

UNIT MODULE 3

WORLD WAR 1 AND ITS AFTERMATH

Sub unit 11.3.1: World War 1- Introduction

Sub unit 11.3.2: Australia in Papua and New Guinea

**Sub unit 11.3.3: The Great Depression and the rise
of Dictatorship**

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DIANA TEIT AKIS

PRINCIPAL



**Flexible Open and Distance Education
Papua New Guinea**

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Papua New Guinea

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SECRETARY'S MESSAGE

Achieving a better future by individual students and their families, communities or the nation as a whole, depends on the kind of curriculum and the way it is delivered.

This course is a part of the new Flexible, Open and Distance Education curriculum. The learning outcomes are student-centred and allows for them to be demonstrated and assessed.

It maintains the rationale, goals, aims and principles of the national curriculum and identifies the knowledge, skills, attitudes and values that students should achieve.

This is a provision by Flexible, Open and Distance Education as an alternative pathway of formal education.

The course promotes Papua New Guinea values and beliefs which are found in our Constitution, Government Policies and Reports. It is developed in line with the National Education Plan (2005 -2014) and addresses an increase in the number of school leavers affected by the lack of access into secondary and higher educational institutions.

Flexible, Open and Distance Education curriculum is guided by the Department of Education's Mission which is fivefold:

- To facilitate and promote the integral development of every individual
- To develop and encourage an education system satisfies the requirements of Papua New Guinea and its people
- To establish, preserve and improve standards of education throughout Papua New Guinea
- To make the benefits of such education available as widely as possible to all of the people
- To make the education accessible to the poor and physically, mentally and socially handicapped as well as to those who are educationally disadvantaged.

The college is enhanced to provide alternative and comparable pathways for students and adults to complete their education through a one system, many pathways and same outcomes.

It is our vision that Papua New Guineans' harness all appropriate and affordable technologies to pursue this program.

I commend all those teachers, curriculum writers, university lecturers and many others who have contributed in developing this course.



UKE KOMBRA, PhD

Secretary for Education

Module 11.3: World War 1 and its Aftermath

Introduction

In this sub unit students will learn that the start of the twentieth century in Europe was a period of disorder. Students learn that international relations in this period were divided by alliances that caused mistrust and suspicion. Regional conflicts and battles that directly and indirectly involved major powers created further uncertainty, suspicion and instability. Finally, these conflicts created the climate necessary for a major conflict, a global war.

In Europe by 1914 the traditional hierarchical system represented by the monarchical system had begun to crumble. In the aftermath of the war the borders in Europe, Asia, Africa and the Middle East were redrawn, new countries were created and the empires of the defeated powers broken up. In this new order which was marked by economic and social unrest, political ideas such as communism, socialism and fascism gained popular support. In Asia, Africa and the Middle East nationalist movements began which combined aspects of Western political theories with local ideas and practices.

Students identify the winners and losers at the end of the war and examine the conditions of the treaties with the losers. They acquire knowledge about the interests of various groups of people, nationalities, classes and races. Movements for internationalism and organizations like the League of Nations as a means of resolving conflict between rival nations and ideologies.

In relation to Papua New Guinea, students will describe how World War 1 affected colonial administration in New Guinea. The former German colony of New Guinea became the League of Nations' Mandated Territory under the supervision of Australia.



Learning Outcomes

On successful completion of this module, students will be able to:

1. identify and understand events, issues and forces that have shaped their cultural, social, political and economic heritage
2. describe and explain the origin, development and impact of change on nations
3. interpret and critique historical evidence and information
4. apply the historical skills of inquiry, observation, classification, recording and interpreting.

Learning Indicators

Students will be achieving this outcome when they, for example:

- Synthesis evidence to draw conclusions about the causes and effects of World War I
- Use timelines, maps and diagrams to map the course of World War I
- Use key concepts such as culture, nationalism, race and ideology to describe and analyse the rise of the dictators
- Describe and appreciate the role of the League of Nations
- Present information outlining Australia's post-war administration of Papua and New Guinea, using historical conventions such as quotations, bibliography and footnotes
- Analyse propaganda in cartoons, posters, documents, photographs and so on that relate to World War I, the dictators and the Depression



STUDY GUIDE

Below are the steps to guide you in your course study.

- Step 1: Carefully read through each module. In most cases, reading through a lesson once is not enough. It helps to read something over several times until you understand it.
- Step 2: There is an instruction below each activity that tells you to check your answers. Turn to the marking guide found at the end of each module, and mark your own written answers against those listed under the **Answers to Activities**. Do each activity and mark your answers before moving on to the next part of the module.
- Step 3: After reading the summary of the unit module, start doing the Practice Exercise. Refer to the module notes. You must do only one practice exercise at a time.
- Step 4: Below each Practice Exercise, there is an instruction that says:

CHECK YOUR WORK. ANSWERS ARE AT THE END OF THE SUB UNIT.

Turn to the marking guide at the end of the topic, and mark your own written answers against those listed under the Answers to Practice Exercises.

- Step 5: When you have completed a practice exercise and marked your answers, go back to the module and correct any mistakes you may have made, before moving on to the next module.
- Step 6: Study the entire module following Steps 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5.

Here is a sample Study Timetable for you to use as a guide. Refer to it as a reminder of your study times.

Time	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
8:00-10:00	FODE STUDY TIME				
10:00-11:00					
1:00-2:00					
2:00-4:00					
6:00-7:00					
7:00-9:00	Listen to or watch current affairs programmes. Write your diary, read a book.				

A timetable will help you to remember when you should be doing your FODE studies each day.



Time

This unit should be completed within 10 weeks.

If you set an average of 3 hours per day, you should be able to complete the unit comfortably by the end of the assigned week.

Try to do all the learning activities and compare your answers with the ones provided at the end of the unit. If you do not get a particular exercise right in the first attempt, you should not get discouraged but instead, go back and attempt it again. If you still do not get it right after several attempts then you should seek help from a friend or your tutor. Do not pass any question without solving it first.



Sub unit 11.3.1 World War I

Introduction

In this sub unit, you look at the events that occurred before World War 1 and during the war itself. You will study the events in Europe that eventually led to the start of the war particularly who was involved, why and how the events unfolded triggering a world war.

In studying the occurrence of events you focus on the alliance between European countries and how the turn of events gave way to nationalism and finally war. World War 1 was mainly fought in Europe by the Allied forces, French and Germany. Most of the fighting occurred in trenches which had a great impact on the Britain and France. During the war women were taken to work in factories producing goods to support the war effort.

Germany suffered the most after the war, and as a result of the treaties signed against it for the atrocities it executed. The world war had a major financial impact on European countries particularly France and Germany.

**Sub topic 11.3.1.1: The World at the beginning of the 20th century**

Welcome. This is sub topic 1 of the Grade 11 Unit Module 3 on World War I and its Aftermath. You will be looking at the events and changes in Europe in the 1900 leading up to World War I and the period between the two World Wars. You start by studying The World at the beginning of the 20th Century.

By the end of this sub topic, students should be able to:

- explain world affairs in the 1900 to 1914
 - describe the position of Europe to the rest of the world
 - discuss the alliance systems
-

In the 19th Century and for the first half of the 20th century, the great nations of Europe were the most powerful in the world. Europe was made up of Monarch systems of great empires ruled by emperors and remained very feudal. Most of the changes in Europe began with the French Revolution and the Napoleonic Wars. New ideas and new beliefs developed during the revolutions and during times of war. More and more people began to accept these new belief systems and ideologies that became the forces of change that were to reshape Europe and ultimately the world. Such ideas like Nationalism, Liberalism, Militarism and building up alliance systems. A number of long term factors worked together to form a 'war climate'-an atmosphere out of which war was likely to happen.

World War one broke out in late summer 1914, but tension had been building in Europe since 1900.

Political and Military Alliances

An alliance is an agreement made between two or more countries to give each other help if it is needed. When an alliance is signed, those countries become known as Allies. A number of alliances had been signed by countries between the years 1879 and 1914. These were important because they meant that some countries had no option but to declare war if one of their allies declared war first. In the 19th century, the major European powers had gone to great lengths to maintain a balance of power throughout Europe, resulting in a network of political and military alliances throughout the continent by 1900. These had started in 1815, with the Holy Alliance between Prussia, Russia and Austria. Then, in October 1873, German Chancellor Otto von Bismarck negotiated the League of the Three Emperors between the monarchs of Austria-Hungary, Russia and Germany. This agreement failed because Austria-Hungary and Russia could not agree over Balkan policy, leaving Germany and Austria-Hungary in an alliance formed in 1879, called the Dual Alliance. This was seen as a method of countering Russian influence in the Balkans as the Ottoman Empire continued to weaken. In 1882, this alliance was expanded to include Italy in what became the Triple Alliance. Bismarck had especially worked to hold Russia at Germany's side to avoid a two-front war with France and Russia. When Wilhelm II ascended the throne as German Emperor (*Kaiser*), Bismarck was compelled to retire and his system of alliances was gradually discouraged.

For example, the Kaiser refused to renew the Reinsurance Treaty with Russia in 1890. Two years later, the Franco-Russian Alliance was signed to counteract the force of the Triple Alliance. In 1904, Britain signed a series of agreements with France, the Entente Cordiale, and in 1907, Britain and Russia signed the Anglo-Russian Convention. While these agreements did not formally ally Britain with France or Russia, they made British entry into any future conflict involving France or Russia a possibility and the system of interlocking bilateral agreements became known as the Triple Entente.

1879 The Dual Alliance  Germany and Austria-Hungary made an alliance to protect themselves from Russia	1881 Austro-Serbian Alliance  Austria-Hungary made an alliance with Serbia to stop Russia gaining control of Serbia	1882 The Triple Alliance  Germany and Austria-Hungary made an alliance with Italy to stop Italy from taking sides with Russia
 1914 Triple Entente (no separate peace) Britain, Russia and France agreed not to sign for peace separately.	 1894 Franco-Russian Alliance Russia formed an alliance with France to protect herself against Germany and Austria-Hungary	
 1907 Triple Entente This was made between Russia, France and Britain to counter the increasing threat from Germany.	 1907 Anglo-Russian Entente This was an agreement between Britain and Russia	 1904 Entente Cordiale This was an agreement, but not a formal alliance between France and Britain.

Figure 1: Alliance Systems

Arms race and Militarism

Militarism means that the army and military forces are given a high profile by the government. German industrial and economic power had grown greatly after unification and the foundation of the Empire in 1871 following the Franco-Prussian War. From the mid-1890s on, the government of Wilhelm II used this base to use most economic resources for building up the Imperial German Navy, established by Admiral Alfred von Tirpitz, in rivalry with the British Royal Navy for world naval supremacy. As a result, each nation did their best to out-build the other in capital ships. With the launch of HMS *Dreadnought* in 1906, the British Empire expanded on its advantage over its German rival.

The arms race between Britain and Germany eventually extended to the rest of Europe, with all the major powers devoting their industrial base to producing the equipment and weapons necessary for a pan-European conflict. The German, Von Schlieffen also drew up a plan of action that involved attacking France through Belgium if Russia made an attack on Germany, known as the Schlieffen Plan. Between 1908 and 1913, the military spending of the European powers increased by 50 percent.

Imperialism

Imperialism is when a country takes over new lands or countries and makes them subject to their rule. By 1900, the British Empire extended over five continents and France had control of large areas of Africa. Before World War 1, Africa and parts of Asia were points of conflict amongst the European countries. This was especially true because of the raw materials these areas could provide. The increasing competition and desire for greater empires led to an increase in confrontation and tension that helped push the nations into World War I. Britain especially with its huge worldwide British Empire was a main example, although it entered the war later than the other key players on the issue of Belgium. Britain also had an "informal empire" based on trade in neutral countries. It grew rich in part from its success in trade in foreign resources, markets and territories. In all countries the quest for national prestige strengthened imperial motives. Their frustrating ambitions and British policies of strategic exclusion created tensions. Commercial interests contributed largely to rivalries during the Scramble for Africa after 1880. Africa became the scene of sharpest conflict between certain French, German and British imperial interests. Rivalries for not just colonies, but colonial trade and trade routes developed between the emerging economic powers and the current great powers.

The amount of lands 'owned' by Britain and France increased the rivalry with Germany who had entered the scramble to acquire colonies late and only had small areas of Africa. France had recently been given Morocco by the British. Morocco's bid for independence was supported by Germany.



Figure 2: Europe on the eve of World war 1 - 1914

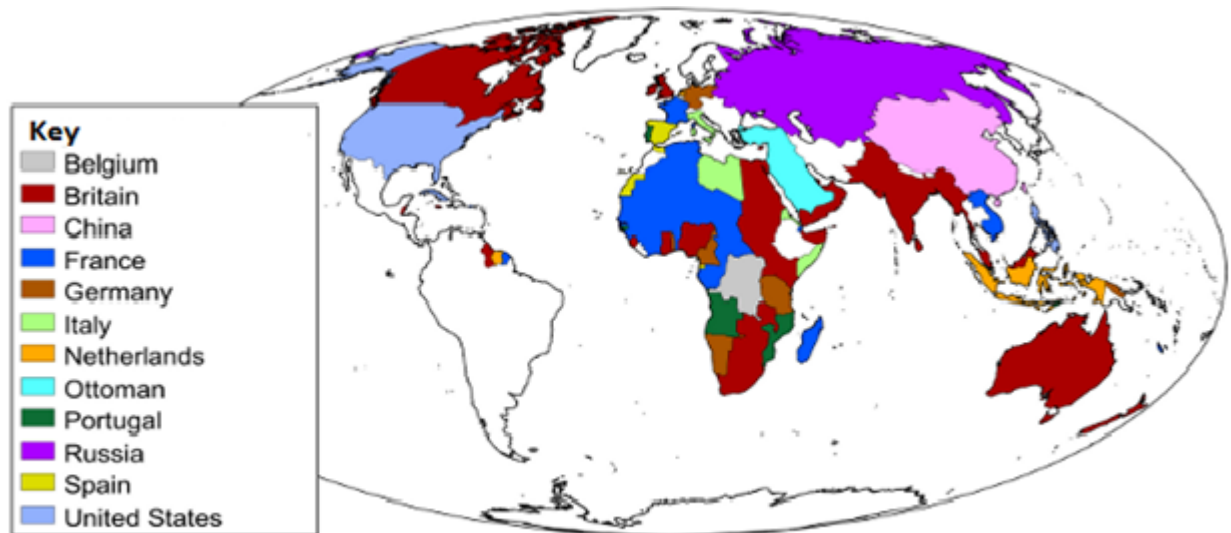


Figure 3: Major Empires, 1914

Colonialism in 1914

This map shows the world's major empires on the eve of World War I. The focus of European colonialism has shifted to the Eastern Hemisphere, and neo-European United States has become a colonial power in its own right, seizing some of declining Spain's possessions. After the war, much of the Ottoman Empire's territory was divided up among Britain and France, while Germany lost its overseas possessions to the victorious nations.

Nationalism

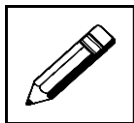


Figure 4: Africa, 1914



Nationalism and extreme patriotism were significant contributing factors to the outbreak of World War I. Nationalism became so aggressive that people believed that their nation was the best, if necessary prove it. Their country need not recognize the rights of other countries. Every one of Europe's Great Powers developed firm but excessive beliefs in its own cultural, economic and military supremacy. This arrogance was fuelled by media propaganda in every country. European populations became convinced of two things: that their nations and governments were right and that their military would win any conflict. As these attitudes hardened, the likelihood of war increased. This was particularly true for France when it was defeated in 1871, French nationalist want revenge to Germany. France was angry because the settlement at the end of the Franco-Prussian war had given Alsace-Lorraine to Germany. Nationalism was also a major contributing factor to problems in the Balkan region. Large areas of both Austria-Hungary and Serbia were home to differing nationalist groups, all of whom wanted freedom from the states in which they lived. For example, Slavic peoples in Bosnia and Herzegovina no longer wanted to be part of Austria Hungary but instead be part of Serbia. The big Slavic nation, Russia, supported their cause and that angered the Hapsburg Empire. In this way, nationalism led directly to the War. Nationalism contributed not only to the beginning but the extension of the war in Europe. Each country tried to prove their dominance and power.

Now do Activity.



Activity 11.3.1.1

1. The following ideologies are root causes of World War 1. Define the terms.

(a) Nationalism

(b) Liberalism

(c) Militarism

2. Describe the type of political system in Europe in the 19th century.

3. When did these alliance systems start and who was involved?

Alliance	Date formed	Members
a. Holy Alliance b. League of the Three Emperors c. Dual Alliance d. Entente Cordiale e. Triple Entente f. Triple Alliance.		

4. Refer to the cartoon. Explain in 2-3 sentences how Nationalism and Imperialism contributed to World War 1?

5. Give two examples each of how Nationalism and Imperialism contributed to World War 1.



Figure 5: Cecil Rhodes claiming Africa for Great Britain.



6. Complete the following text using the words below.

Words

Stolen, worried, alliances, Europe, Entente, alliance, Austro-Hungary, militarism, revenge, Britain

Europe was divided into two (a) _____. These were called the Triple (b) _____ and the Triple (c) _____. Members of each alliance promised to fight for each other if they were attacked. It would only take a small incident to spark a war involving all of (d) _____.

Germany had been trying to build up her navy and her empire. (e) _____ was (f) _____ about this. Both countries raced each other to build the best navy. There was tension between both countries. This cause is called (g) _____.

The area to the south-east of (h) _____ - _____ was known as the Balkans. The area was very unstable. The European alliances had different ideas on how to deal with the problem. France was keen for (i) _____ on Germany. Germany had taken land from the French in 1871 they wanted the land back. They said it had been (j) _____ from them by Germany.

Check your answers at the end of sub unit 11.3.1.

Sub topic 11.3.1.2 Events leading to the Outbreak of War

In this sub topic, you identify the events and changes in Europe leading up to World War I. You will also study propaganda in cartoons and documents.

By the end of this sub topic, students should be able to:

- Identify the events which led to the First World War (WWI)
- List and explain the episodes leading to WWI
- Examine and critique propaganda from cartoons and documents

World War I was caused by a combination of several factors but above all, it was caused by the tensions between the European powers and crisis of the balance-of-power system that divided Europe into two camps. While one camp, joining Great Britain, France and Russia (Triple Entente) made every effort to preserve the fragile balance between the European great powers, the second camp that formed around German Empire, Austria-Hungary and Italy (Central Powers) was challenging it. Discussed below are specific events that led to one of the most devastating military conflicts in history.

Moroccan Crises



Figure 6: Agadir Crisis

In 1904 Morocco was given to France by Britain, but the Moroccans wanted independence and were supported by Germany. War was avoided, but in 1911, the Germans were again protesting against French possession of Morocco. Britain supported France and Germany was persuaded to back down in exchange for part of French Congo. The Moroccan Crises - the Tangier Crisis (1905-1906) and Agadir Crisis (1911) - brought the European powers on the brink of war. Both crises were provoked by the Germans with an aim to cause tensions between France and Britain that just concluded an alliance. In 1904 France had concluded a secret treaty with Spain partitioning Morocco and asked for a free hand in Morocco. Germany, however, insisted upon an open-door policy in the area; and, in a dramatic show of

imperial power, the emperor William II visited Tangier and, from his yacht on March 31, 1905. Germany declared independence for Morocco's which triggered international tension and panic. However, the first Moroccan Crisis, was resolved in January–April 1906 at the Algeiras Conference, where Germany and other national economic rights were upheld and where the French and Spanish were entrusted with the policing of Morocco.

The Great Powers before World War 1

- **Great Britain:** Britain was in sympathy with people who wished to set up parliamentary government and found little in common with European kings, who were trying to stop change. Britain therefore adopted a policy of “splendid isolation”. In 1914, Great Britain was considered the world’s leading power.
- **France:** France was a leading nation on the European continent with the largest empire and desired to remain powerful. France also wanted revenge for the defeat in the Franco-Prussian war of 1871. They also longed for the recovery of their territory of Alsace-Lorraine.
- **Germany:** Although Germany became a united country only in 1871. It had rapidly industrialised and had the strongest army in the world. It built an empire which was the greatest military power on the European continent and was a threat to Britain’s naval supremacy.
- **Russia:** In 1914, Russia was a very Slavic empire ruled by the Tsar Nicholas. An agrarian nation beginning to industrialise. Russian supported the Slavic people in the Balkans and their course.

The Second Moroccan Crisis

The Second Moroccan Crisis (1911) was started when the German gunboat Panther was sent to Agadir on July 1, 1911, supposedly to protect German interests during a local native uprising in Morocco but in reality to intimidate the French. This “Agadir Incident” sparked war talks during the summer and fall (the British even made preparations for eventual war), but international negotiations continued and the crisis subsided with the conclusion of the convention of Nov. 4, 1911, in which France was given rights to a protectorship over Morocco and in return, Germany was given strips of territory from the French Congo. The results, however, was right the opposite. Instead of ‘softening’ Britain, the Moroccan Crises further reinforced the Entente Cordiale and increased the British hostility towards Germany.

Bosnian Crisis

In 1908, Austria-Hungary decided to annex Bosnia and Herzegovina that was formally a central part of the Ottoman Empire. The annexation of the provinces that were occupied by the Dual Monarchy since 1878 was bitterly opposed by Serbia. Serbia was supported by the Tsarist government and the crisis continued into 1909. Russia failed to win as firm support from France or Britain as Vienna enjoyed from Germany and accepted the takeover of the provinces. Serbia was forced to back down and the crisis ended. But it permanently damaged the relationship between Russia and Serbia on the one hand and Austria-Hungary on the other. The annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina caused tension and hatred in Serbia, while the way it was carried out humiliated the Russian

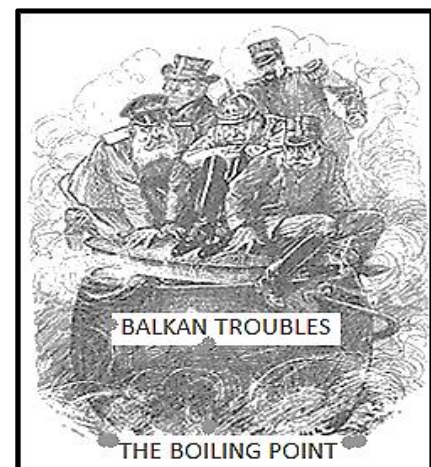


Figure 7: European Empires trying to keep the lid on the simmering heat of nationalist tensions in the Balkans to prevent a European war.



government that could not afford a similar humiliation during the 1914 July Crisis.

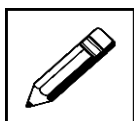
Balkan Wars

In 1912, Serbia, Greece, Montenegro and Bulgaria formed the Balkan League, a military alliance against the Ottoman Empire. Within a few months, the Balkan allies stripped the Ottoman Empire of its possessions in the Balkans and divided the conquered territory among themselves.

In June, 1913, Bulgaria turned against its allies of Serbia and Greece due to a dispute over division of Macedonia. But the Bulgarians were defeated within a month and forced to give up their claims in Macedonia. The success of the Balkan League shocked most European powers including the Russians, France and Great Britain. But it especially disturbed Austria-Hungary that strongly opposed a strong Serbian state. Vienna saw Serbia both as a rival in the Balkans and as a direct threat because it feared that its small Balkan neighbour may become the core of a future South-Slavic state.

The Balkan Wars made Austro-Hungarian statesmen even more determined to take real action to prevent further strengthening of Serbia.

Now do Activity.



Activity 11.3.1.2

1. When did the Moroccan crises occur?

2. What were the causes of the 1st and 2nd Moroccan crises?

3. Which country annexed Bosnia and Herzegovina?

4. Why did the annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina cause resentment and tension?



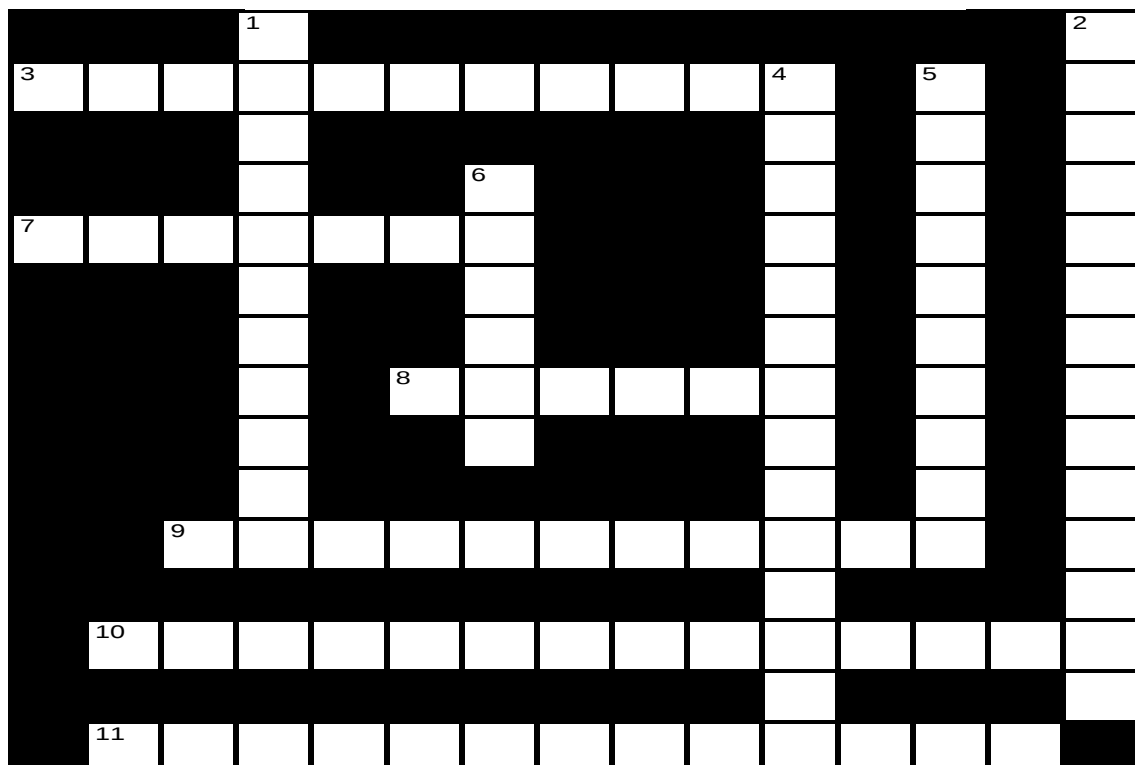
5. Fill in the main details about the Balkan Wars.

Wars	Date	Countries		Consequences
		A	B	
Balkan War 1				
Balkan War 2				

6. Explain in a few sentences what Figure 7 depicts?

7. Do the Cross word puzzle.

World War I Causes



**Across**

- 3** British battleship introduced in 1906 (11)
- 7** A crisis in this country in 1904 nearly led to war (7)
- 8** This congress had led to Germany and Italy being divided (6)
- 9** When a country takes over new lands or countries (11)
- 10** German plan to invade France through Belgium (10, 4)
- 11** Agreement between Britain, Russia and France (6, 7)

Down

- 1** Being a strong supporter of the rights of one's country (11)
- 2** His assassination triggered World War One (5,9)
- 4** Agreement between Germany, Austria-Hungary and Italy (6,8)
- 5** When the army is given a high profile by a government (10)
- 6** Austria-Hungary took over this Balkan state in 1908 (6)

Check your answers at the end of sub unit 11.3.1

Sub topic 11.3.1.3: Immediate causes of World War I

In this sub topic, you look at the immediate causes leading up to World War I. You start by identifying the causes of the war and who was to blame.

By the end of this Sub topic, students should be able to:

- Identify the causes of the war
- Explain the reasons which have been suggested for the escalation of the war and who was to blame for the war

The murder of Franz Ferdinand in Sarajevo is accepted as the immediate cause of World War One though serious trouble - long term causes - had been brewing for some time.

On June 28th 1914, the heir to the Austrian Empire, Franz Ferdinand, was visiting Sarajevo, the capital of Bosnia. Bosnia was in the very south-east corner of the Austrian empire and some people there wanted to be independent from Austria and set up their own state which could run itself. Franz Ferdinand had been warned that his visit could provoke trouble but he ignored this advice and visited Sarajevo regardless. As was common at the time, he travelled in an open topped car.



Figure 8: Archduke Franz Ferdinand and his family

A Serbian terrorist group, called The Black Hand, had decided that the Archduke should be assassinated and the planned visit provided the ideal opportunity. Seven young men who had been trained in bomb throwing and marksmanship were stationed along the route that Franz Ferdinand's car would follow from the City Hall to the inspection.



The first two terrorists were unable to throw their grenades because the streets were too crowded and the car was travelling quite fast. The third terrorist, a young man called Cabrinovic, threw a grenade which exploded under the car following that of the Archduke. Although the Archduke and his wife were unhurt, some of his attendants were injured and had to be taken to hospital. Clearly, Sarajevo was a dangerous place to be. However, Franz Ferdinand wanted to demonstrate that his family was in control of Sarajevo and to have stopped the tour would have been seen as a sign of weakness.

Franz ordered that his route through Sarajevo be changed at the last minute as he wanted to see the injured officer in hospital. After lunch at the City Hall, Franz Ferdinand insisted on visiting the injured attendants in hospital. Unfortunately, his driver did not fully understand his instructions and got lost. The driver attempted to reverse out on to the main street and he stopped right by a man called Gavrilo Princip,(insert). He was a member of the Black Hand Gang which wanted to rid Bosnia of Austrian rule. Princip pulled out the revolver he had on him and shot Franz and his wife. Both died as a result. Gavrilo Princip was not executed because he was under 20 years, but was sentenced to twenty years in prison. He died of TB in 1918.

Who was blamed?

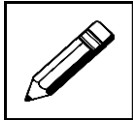
Serbia was blamed by Austria for this murder. Serbia was near to Bosnia and it had encouraged the Black Hand Gang and given the gang weapons. Many historians blame Austria for putting the blame on Serbia and starting a war. What did Serbia want out of this? She hoped that Bosnia would unite with her to form a new Balkan state. Austria decided that Serbia must be punished and planned to invade her. Serbia called on her old friend Russia to help her. Now the alliance or entente came in to play. One country from each was involved on opposite sides. The situation could only get worse.

Serbia would have been easy for Austria to crush but Russia was a different issue. She had a huge army. Austria called on Germany for help. Germany is also blamed for starting World War I because of the support and encouragement it provided for Austria, known as the "Blank Cheque". The German government agreed to this and their response provoked the French government. However, unknown to anybody other than the German government, the German army had created a plan called the Schlieffen Plan. Schlieffen was a senior German army officer and he believed that the German army was superior to any army in Europe but that it could not fight a war on two fronts - France and Russia. Schlieffen calculated that the vast Russian army would take 6 weeks to mobilize and in that time, the Germans could beat France and then send their army across Europe to fight the Russians. The German High Command accepted this plan. When France called up her army, Germany had no choice but to carry out the Schlieffen Plan. This plan involved an attack on France via Belgium. Britain had given Belgium a guarantee in 1839 that if anybody attacked her, Britain would be on their side.

Therefore, within weeks of the murder at Sarajevo, five out of the six countries that had signed the two treaties were on the verge of war. On August 4th, 1914, Germany invaded Belgium. Britain declared war on Germany. France and Russia supported Britain. Austria supported Germany.

Every country concerned was convinced that the war would last only from August to Christmas 1914. No-one predicted the horrors of trench warfare.

Now do Activity.



Activity 11.3.1.3

1. What was the immediate cause of World War 1?

2. According to the picture,

- (a) Who shot the Archduke and his wife?

- (b) Which gang is the killer part of?



Figure 9: Gavrilo Princip shot the Archduke and his wife Sophie – Sarajevo the capital of Bosnia.

- (c) Who is Archduke Franz Ferdinand?

3. Which country was blamed for the murder and why?

4. What is a 'blank cheque' and what does it mean?

5. With the aid of the Map below; describe the contents of the Schlieffen Plan?

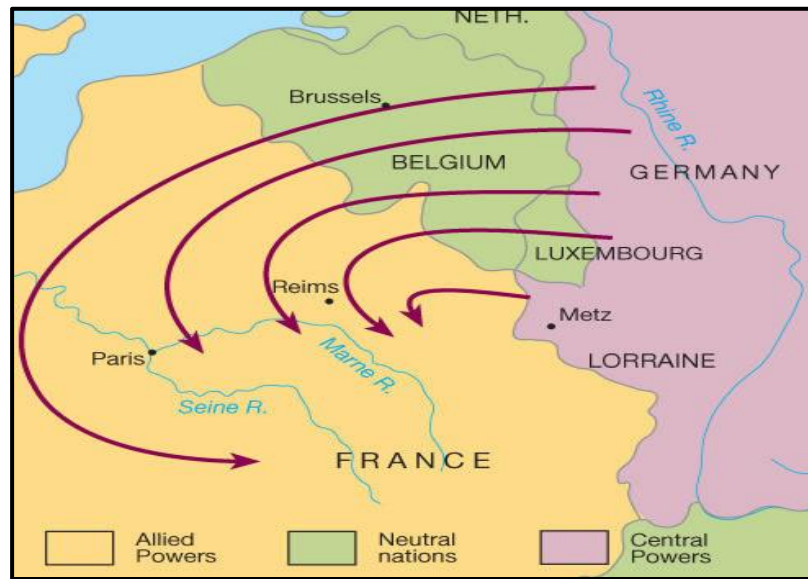


Figure 10: The Schlieffen Plan

6. Do the words search.

Wordlist:

Franz Ferdinand, Gavrilo Princip, Sarajevo, Bosnia, Sophie, Inspection, Blackhand, Assassination, Terrorist, City hall, Troops, Herzegovina

Assassination of Franz Ferdinand



Sub topic 11.3.1.4: The Main Events of WWI: 1914-1918

In this sub topic, you look at the main events of World War I. You start by studying the main events and battles of WWI from 1914 to 1918.

By the end of this sub topic, the students should be able to:

- identify and discuss the summary of events of World War I
- outline the major battles of the World War I that occurred from 1914 to 1918

Although World War One was a world war, most of the fighting was confined to a few key areas. These areas are usually referred to as the **theatres of war**.

During World War One, combat raged on the Western Front from 1914 to 1918. This front was largely fought on French soil, although Belgium was also invaded. The key powers were the Allies on one side – British and French troops and their Imperial forces, later boosted by the US. They fought against the Axis made up of Germany, Austria –Hungary Empire, Ottoman Empire. Germany, planning for their much feared two front war with France and Russia, planned to knock France out in a quick, six week campaign before Russia could mobilise and threaten from the east. The plan was designed by Schlieffen and called for a massive German attack to roll through the flat north of Europe – including Belgium – before swinging south and attacking Paris from the rear. The plan presumed France would surrender if Paris fell, presumed people would ignore the fall of Belgium, presumed Russia would take a long time to mobilise and also presumed that a war of such movement was still possible.

France knew of the Schlieffen Plan, but had formed its own Plan XVII. This called for a mass attack with the bulk of their troops to regain Alsace and Lorraine, with a much smaller force left with the British to stop the German advance in the north. The plan assumed Germany could be stopped fairly easily. The French military had actually tried to get authorisation for a plan to attack through Belgium into Germany, but the government was against violating Belgium neutrality.

A. The Western Front 1914-1916

The war fought on the western front between 1914 and 1918 was a static war. Following the outbreak of World War I in 1914, the German Army opened the Western Front by first invading Luxembourg and Belgium, then gaining military control of important industrial regions in France. The tide of the advance was dramatically turned with the Battle of the Marne. To avoid losing the territory already gained in France, the Germans began digging trenches. The British and French, unable to break through the line of trenches began to dig their own trenches. Following the race to the sea, both sides dug in along a meandering line of fortified trenches, stretching from the North Sea to the Swiss



Figure 11: Germany invades Belgium

frontier with France. This line remained essentially unchanged for most of the war. Throughout the entire war, neither side gained more than a few miles of ground along what became known as the western Front.

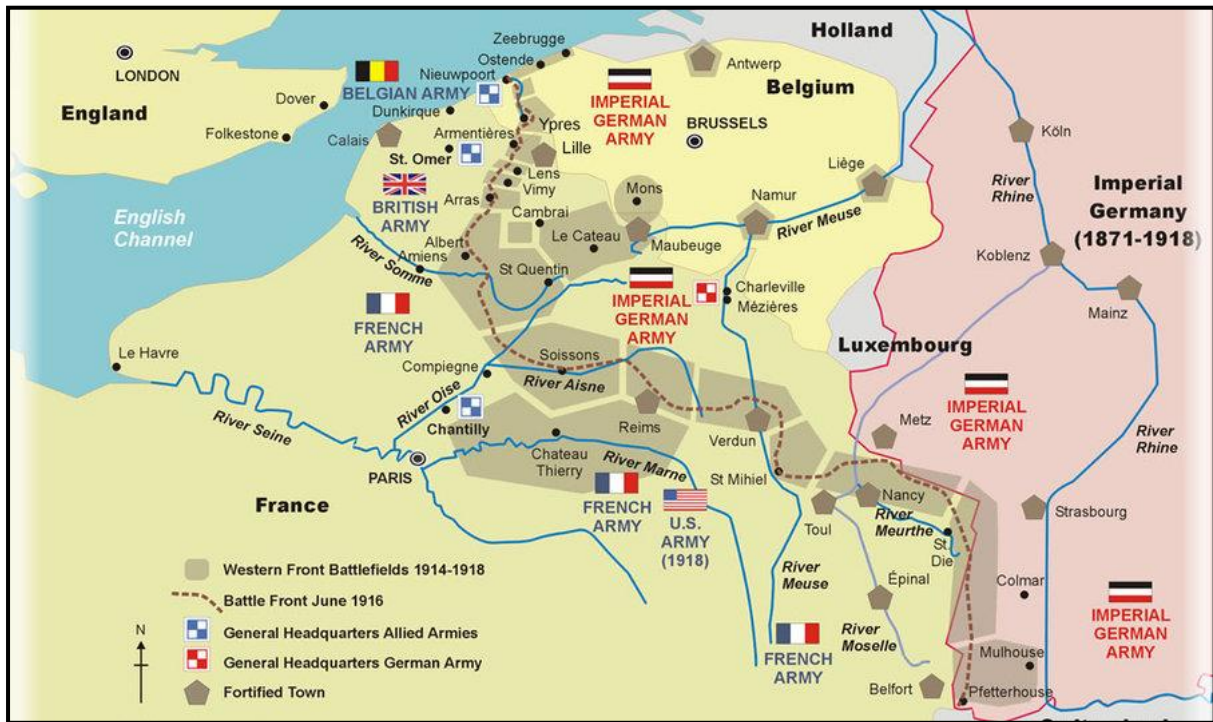


Figure 12: The Western Front

Between 1915 and 1917 there were several major offensives along this front. The attacks employed massive artillery bombardments and massed infantry advances. However, a combination of entrenchments, machine gun nests, barbed wire and artillery repeatedly inflicted severe casualties on the attackers and counter attacking defenders. As a result, no significant advances were made. Among the most costly of these offensives were the Battle of Verdun with a combined 700, 000 casualties, the Battle of the Somme with more than a million casualties, and the Battle of Passchendaele with roughly 600, 000 casualties.

In an effort to break the deadlock, this front saw the introduction of new military technology, including poison gas, aircraft and tanks. But it was only after the adoption of improved tactics that some degree of mobility was restored. The German Spring Offensive of 1918 was made possible by the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk that marked the end of the conflict on the Eastern Front. Using the recently introduced infiltration tactics, the German armies advanced nearly 60 miles to the west, which marked the deepest advance by either side since 1914 and very nearly succeeded in forcing a breakthrough. In the west the statement continues, thought several attempts were made to break the trench line.



Figure 13: Soldiers in gas masks to protect themselves from gas – Western Front

(i) Battle of the Marne (3rd -11th September 1914)

The First Battle of the Marne marked the end of the German sweep into France and the beginning of the trench warfare that was to characterise World War One.

A French offensive in Lorraine prompted German counter attacks that threw the French back onto a fortified barrier. The German northern wing was weakened by the removal of 11 divisions to fight in Belgium and East Prussia. The German 1st Army, under Kluck, then swung north of Paris, rather than south west, as intended. This required them to pass into the valley of the River Marne across the Paris defences, exposing them to a flank attack.

On 3rd September, Joffre ordered a halt to the French retreat and three days later his reinforced left flank began a general offensive. Kluck was forced to stop his advance prematurely in order to support his flank: he was still no further up the Marne Valley.

On 9th September, Bülow learnt that the British Expeditionary Force (BEF) was advancing into the gap between his 2nd Army and Kluck. He ordered a retreat, warning Kluck to do the same. The counter attack of the French 5th and 6th Armies and the BEF developed into the First Battle of the Marne, a general counter attack by the French Army. By 11th September, the Germans were in full retreat.

This remarkable change in luck was caused partially by the exhaustion of many of the German forces: some had marched more than 240 km, fighting frequently. The German advance was also hampered by destroyed bridges and railways, damaging their supply lines and they had underestimated the resilience of the French.



The Germans withdrew northward from the Marne and made a firm defensive stand along the Lower Aisne River. Here the benefits of defence over attack became clear as the Germans resisted continuous Allied attacks from the shelter of trenches: the First Battle of the Aisne marked the real beginning of trench warfare on the Western Front.

Trench warfare:

A warfare in which opposing armed forces attack, counter attack, and defend from relatively permanent systems of trenches dug into the ground.

In saving Paris from capture by pushing the Germans back some 72 km, the First Battle of the Marne was a great strategic victory, as it enabled the French to continue the war. However, the Germans succeeded in capturing a large part of the industrial north east of France, a serious blow. Furthermore, the rest of 1914 took on the geographic and tactical deadlock that would take another three years and countless lives to break.

(ii) Battle of Verdun (21st February-November 1916)

The Battle of Verdun began on 21st February, 1916, after a nine-day delay due to snow and blizzards. After a massive eight-hour artillery bombardment, the Germans did not expect much resistance as they slowly advanced on Verdun and its forts. However, heavy French resistance was encountered. The French lost control of Fort Douaumont. Nonetheless, French reinforcements halted the German advance by 28th February.

The Germans turned their focus to the north from which the French were successfully attacking them. After some of the most intense fighting of the campaign, the hill was taken by the Germans in late May. After a change in French command at Verdun to the defensive-minded Philippe Pétain, the French attempted to re-capture Fort Douaumont on 22nd May but were easily resisted. The Germans captured Fort Vaux on 7th June and, with the aid of the poisonous gas, came within 1 km of the last ridge over Verdun before stopping on 23rd June.

Over the summer, the French slowly advanced. With the development of the rolling barrage, the French recaptured Fort Vaux in November and by December 1916 they had pushed the Germans back 2.1 km from Fort Douaumont, in the process rotating 42 divisions through the battle. The Battle of Verdun—also known as the 'Mincing Machine of Verdun'-became a symbol of French determination and self-sacrifice.

(iii) Battle of the Somme (1st July – November 1916)

In the spring, Allied commanders had been concerned about the ability of the French army to withstand the enormous losses at Verdun. The original plan for an attack around the river Somme was modified to let the British make the main effort. This would serve to relieve pressure on the French as well as the Russians who had also suffered great losses. On 1st July, after a week of heavy rain, British divisions in Picardy launched an attack around the river Somme, supported by five French divisions on their right flank. The attack had been hit by seven days of heavy artillery bombardment. The experienced French forces were successful in advancing but the British artillery cover had neither blasted away barbed wire, nor destroyed German trenches as effectively as was planned. They suffered about 57,000 casualties, the greatest number (killed, wounded and missing) in a single day in the history of the British army.



Figure 14: French soldiers observing enemy movements

Having assessed the air combat over Verdun, the Allies had new aircraft for the attack in the Somme valley. The Verdun lesson learnt, the Allies' tactical aim became the achievement of air superiority and the German planes were, indeed, largely swept from the skies over the Somme. The success of the Allied air offensive caused a regrouping of the German air arm and both sides began using large formations of aircraft rather than relying on individual combat.

After regrouping, the battle continued throughout July and August, with some success for the British despite the reinforcement of the German lines. By August, General Haig had concluded that a breakthrough was unlikely and instead switched tactics to a series of small unit actions. The effect was to straighten out the front line, which was thought necessary in preparation for a massive artillery bombardment with a major push.

The final phase of the battle of the Somme saw the first use of the tank on the battlefield. The Allies prepared an attack that would involve 13 British and Imperial divisions and four French corps. The attack made early progress, advancing 3,500–4,500 yards in places, but the tanks had little effect due to their lack of numbers and mechanical unreliability. The final phase of the battle took place in October and early November, again producing limited gains with heavy loss of life. All told, the Somme battle had made penetrations of 8 km and failed to reach the original objectives. The British had suffered about 420, 000 casualties and the French around 200, 000. It is estimated that the Germans lost 465, 000, although this figure is controversial.

The Somme led directly to major new developments in infantry organisation and tactics; despite the terrible losses of 1st July, some divisions had managed to achieve their objectives with minimal casualties. In examining the reasons behind losses and achievements, the British and the Colonial contingents, reintroduced the concept of the infantry platoon, following in the footsteps of the French and German armies who were already making their way towards

the use of small tactical units. At the time of the Somme, British senior commanders insisted that the company (120 men) was the smallest unit.



Figure 15: Hindenburg line

Hindenburg Line

In August, 1916, the German leadership along the western front had changed as Falkenhayn resigned and was replaced by Generals Paul von Hindenburg and Erich Ludendorff. The new leaders soon recognized that the battles of Verdun and the Somme had depleted the offensive capabilities of the German army. They decided that the German army in the west would go over to the strategic defensive for most of 1917, while the Central powers would attack elsewhere.

During the Somme battle and through the winter months, the Germans created a defensive position behind a section of their front called the Hindenburg Line. This was intended to shorten the German front, freeing 10 divisions for other duties. This line of fortifications ran from Arras south to St Quentin and shortened the front. British long-range reconnaissance aircraft first spotted the construction of the Hindenburg Line in November 1916.

US Enters the War

Wilson still attempted to find some basis of agreement between the two **belligerent** groups until a change in German war policy in January, 1917, changed his view towards the war. In that month Germany announced that, it would resort to *unrestricted submarine warfare* against the shipping of Great Britain and all shipping to Great Britain. German military and civil experts had calculated that such warfare would bring about the defeat of Great Britain in six months. Because the United States had already expressed its strong opposition to unrestricted submarine warfare, Wilson dropped his peacemaking efforts. On February 3rd, the United States broke diplomatic relations with Germany and at Wilson's request a number of Latin American nations, including Peru, Bolivia, and Brazil, also did so. On April 6th, the United States declared war on Germany.



Arras and Ypres

In 1917, the Allies made two large-scale attempts to break the German lines on the western front. The first took place near Arras between April 9th and May 21st. While it was being planned by the British and the French high commands, the Germans withdrew from their original line along the Aisne to a new position known as the Hindenburg line, against which the Allies directed their attack. Their offensive included the Third Battle of Arras, in which Canadian troops captured the heavily fortified and strongly defended Vimy Ridge, and the British forces made an advance of 6 km and a battle on the Aisne and one in the Champagne district, both of which resulted in casualties so great as to cause a mutiny among the troops. Because of the failure of his reckless attack, General Nivelle on May 15th was replaced by General Henri Philippe Pétain; the new commander's policy was to remain on the defensive until US troops arrived.

The second great Allied offensive took place in June, when the British under Haig made an attempt in Flanders to break through the right wing of the German position. A preliminary battle at Messines set the stage for the main attacks (July 31st-November 10th) at Ypres, called Third Battle of Ypres or Passchendaele campaign. Desperate fighting, in which each side suffered approximately 250, 000 casualties, however, did not result in a breakthrough.

B. The Sea War 1914 – 1918

At sea, Britain used its superior fleet to impose a blockade on the German ports. Germany suffered shortages and by the end of the war, food riots had occurred in a number of German towns. In response to the blockade, the German fleet embarked on a concentrated period of submarine warfare. In 1917, not only did the United States enter the war, but also the Germans failed in their attempt to drive.

Great Britain to surrender through the destruction by submarine of the British and Allied shipping on which provided its supplies. At the outset the German submarine campaign seemed likely to succeed. Towards the end of 1916 German submarines were destroying monthly about 300, 000 tons of British and Allied shipping in the North Atlantic; in April 1917 the figure was 875, 000 tons. Submarine warfare was intensified and British food reserves ran dangerously low in the spring. Two innovations - the convoy system (where ships travelled in groups with military escort) and rationing (of meat, butter, lard, margarine and sugar) - led to the overcoming of this problem. On 7th May, the *Lusitania* in Figure 17, a luxury passenger liner travelling from the United States, was sunk off the south coast of Ireland. Almost 1,200 civilians were drowned, including over 100 Americans. The German fleet withdrew to port, fearful that a continued campaign might bring the neutral Americans into the war on the side of the Allies.

At sea, both the British and German High Seas fleet continued to strive for mastery. The one nearly decisive sea battle took place in the North Sea at Jutland on 31st May 1916. Although German battle cruisers initially caused considerable damage to their British counterparts, the engagement of the British Grand Fleet under Admiral Jellicoe caught the Germans at a disadvantage and caused significant damage. Although the British lost more ships and men in the battle, the German fleet was more heavily damaged and spent most of the rest of the war in its home ports. This allowed the British fleet to effectively control the seas; meaning imperial troops and supplies could reach Europe with much greater ease.



Figure 16: The Lusitania

C. The Air War 1914 – 1918

World War I was truly the first 'total war' - not only was warfare conducted on land and sea but, on 31st May, London witnessed its first attack from the air as bombs were dropped from the great German Zeppelin airships. During the course of the war, over 2,000 civilians were killed or injured as a result of such raids. World War I provided a great stimulus to the production and military use of aircraft, including the aeroplane and airship, or zeppelin balloon and the roped balloon, and to the evolution of air warfare. Aircraft were used for two principal purposes: observation and bombing. For observation of stationary battlefronts extensive use was made by small roped balloons and for scouting at sea, zeppelin balloons were extensively used, and aeroplanes were used for scouting coastal waters. In connection with military operations on land, aeroplanes were used to observe the disposition of the troops and defences of the enemy and for bombing the enemy's lines or troops in action. A special feature of the war was the raids conducted by aeroplanes on important enemy centres far removed from the battlefield.

The first German aeroplane raid on Paris took place on August 30th, 1914; and the first German air raid on England was on Dover on December 21st, 1914. During 1915 and 1916, the German zeppelin raided eastern England and London 60 times. The first German aeroplane raid on London took place on November 28th, 1916, and such raids were frequent during the remainder of the war. The object of the German raids on England was to bring about withdrawal of British planes from the western front for the defense of the homeland; to handicap British industry; and to destroy the morale of the civilian population. The raids caused much loss of life and damage to property but accomplished little of military value.

From the middle of 1915 aerial combats between planes or squadrons of planes were common. The Germans had superiority in the air on the western front from about October 1915 to July 1916, when the supremacy passed to the British. Allied supremacy gradually increased thereafter and with the entrance of the United States into the war became



overwhelming. In April 1918, the United States had three air squadrons at the front, by November 1918 it had 45 squadrons comprising nearly 800 planes and more than 1, 200 officers. The total personnel of the American air service increased from about 1, 200 at the outbreak of the war to nearly 200, 000 at the end. Among the noted aeroplane fighters, or aces, were the American Eddie Rickenbacker, the Canadian William Avery Bishop and the German Baron Manfred von Richthofen.

D. The Eastern Front

When the war had been declared, the France had pressed the Russians to begin their offensive against Germany by August 15th in order that pressure might be taken off France in the west. Thus, although they were not wholly prepared for battle and mobilization was not yet complete, two Russian armies began offensive operations against Germany in East Prussia on August 17th less than three weeks after the declaration of the war. The line of fighting on the Eastern side of Europe between Russia and Germany and Austria-Hungary is known as the Eastern Front. In accordance with the plans of the Allies, the Russians assumed the offensive at the very beginning of the war.

The Russian First Army of 200, 000 men took the northern route into East Prussia. In East Prussia, a series of Russian victories against numerically inferior German forces had made the evacuation of that region by the Germans imminent, when a reinforced German army commanded by General Paul von Hindenburg decisively defeated the Russians in the Battle of Tannenberg, fought on August 26-30th, 1914. In the south the second army of 170, 000 men crossed the frontier moved west and north of Poland. The four Russian armies invading Austria advanced steadily through Galicia and other areas and by the end of March 1915 were in a position to move into Hungary. In April, however, a combined German and Austrian army drove the Russians back from the Carpathians. In May the Austro-German armies began a great offensive in central Poland, and by September 1915 had driven the Russians out of Poland and Lithuania, and had also taken possession of all the frontier fortresses of Russia. To meet this offensive the Russians withdrew their forces from Galicia. The Russian lines, when the German drive had ceased, lay behind three rivers. Although the Central Powers did not force a decision on the eastern front in 1914-1915, the Russians lost so many men and such large quantities of supplies that they were subsequently unable to play any decisive role. in the war. In addition to the Battle of Tannenberg, notable battles on this front during 1914-1915, centered on Masurian were the First Battle of the Masurian Lakes on September 7-14th, and the Second Battle of the Masurian Lakes on February 7th-21st, 1915, both German victories.

The Battle of Tannenberg

Hindenburg now took a gamble. He left a small covering force to hold the northern Russian army and quickly moved the bulk of his force by rail south to attack the Russian second army which was located near the town of Tannenberg. At the battle of Tannenberg, which was fought between 25 and 29, the Germans surrounded and destroyed the second army. The Russians lost 110, 000 men including 90, 000 taken prisoner. The defeat prompted the commanding Russian general, Alexander Samsonov, to shoot himself. The Battle of Tannenberg was an engagement between Russia and Germany in the first month of World War I. Fought between 26 and 30th August 1914, the battle resulted in the almost complete destruction of the Russian Second Army and the suicide of its commanding general. A series of follow-up battles (1st Masurian Lakes) destroyed most of the First Army as well and kept the



Russians off-balance until the spring of 1915. The battle is particularly notable for fast rail movements by the Germans, enabling them to concentrate against two Russian armies in turn, and also for the failure of the Russians to encode their radio messages. It brought high prestige to the rising staff-officer Ludendorff and to Hindenburg who had been brought out of retirement to supervise him.

Tannenberg set the stage for the First Battle of the Masurian Lakes a week later, where the reinforced German Eighth Army now faced only the Russian First Army and forced it back over the prewar border. Russian forces would not again march on German soil until the end of World War II. Although Tannenberg did not produce the strategic results that Masurian Lakes later did (forcing the Russians out of Germany for good), it was a tactical masterpiece and bolstered the morale of the German troops while severely shaking that of the Russians.

The Battle of the Masurian Lakes

With the threat in the south removed, Hindenburg turned his attention to the Russian army in the north. The Russian first army, commanded by General Rennenkampf, was now isolated and without any support. However, his army was saved from disaster by the weariness of the Germans. They were slow to push their attack and the first army managed to organize an orderly retreat into Russia. The battle of the Masurian lakes was a German victory. Nevertheless, East Prussia had been saved and the Russians were never again able to set foot on German soil.

The First Battle of the Masurian Lakes was a German offensive in the Eastern Front during the early stages of World War I. It pushed the Russian First Army back across its entire front, eventually ejecting it from Germany in disarray. Further progress was hampered by the arrival of the Russian Tenth Army on the Germans' left flank. Despite more than two-fold numerical superiority and heavily fortified defensive position, Russians suffered a crushing defeat and retreated in confusion with huge losses, leaving 150 guns.

Russia Withdraws

On the eastern front the dominating influence on the fighting during 1917 was the outbreak in March of the Russian popular uprising against the imperial government. The Russian people were fed up with the huge number of Russian losses. The government and monarchy were overthrown and the new Bolshevik government signed the Treaty of Brest Litovsk which took the Russians out of the war.

The provisional government continued the prosecution of the war, in July, under General Aleksey Brusilov; the Russians staged a successful 2-week drive on the Galician front, but then lost much of the territory they had gained. In September, the Germans took Riga, defended by Russian forces under General Lavr Kornilov and in October occupied the greater part of Latvia and a number of Russian-held islands in the Baltic Sea. The Bolshevik party seized power by force on November 7. A main policy of Bolshevism was the withdrawal of Russia from the war and on November 20 the government that had just come into power offered the German government an armistice. On December 15 an armistice was signed between the Russian and Austro-German negotiators and fighting ceased on the eastern front.

E. The Middle East

The Middle Eastern theatre of World War I was the scene of action between 29 October 1914, and 30 October 1918. The combatants were on the one hand, the Ottoman Empire, with some assistance from the other Central Powers, and on the other hand, the British and the Russians, among the Allies of World War I. There were five main campaigns: the Sinai and Palestine Campaign, the Mesopotamian Campaign, the Caucasus Campaign, the Persian Campaign, and the Gallipoli Campaign. The Gallipoli peninsula is located in the south of Turkey. In 1915, the Allied commanders decided to try to attack Germany by attacking her ally, Turkey. Allied soldiers, mainly from Australia and New Zealand, were sent to the Peninsula while British ships tried to force a way through the Dardanelles. The entire mission was a failure. The Allies lost more than 50, 000 men but gained hardly any land.

Both sides used local experienced forces in the region. Participating on the Allied side were Arabs who participated in the Arab Revolt, Armenian militia who participated in the Armenian Resistance, with the Armenian volunteer units and Armenian militia formed the Armenian Corps of the First Republic of Armenia in 1918. In addition, the Assyrians also joined with the Allies following the Assyrian genocide, instigating an Assyrian war of independence. This area encompassed the largest territory of all the battles of the war.

The Russian participation ended with the revolutionary Russian government eventually withdrew from the war with the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk (3 March 1918). The Ottomans accepted the Armistice of Mudros with the Allies on 30 October 1918, and signed the Treaty of Sèvres on 10 August 1920 and later the Treaty of Lausanne on 24 July 1923.

F. Italian Front

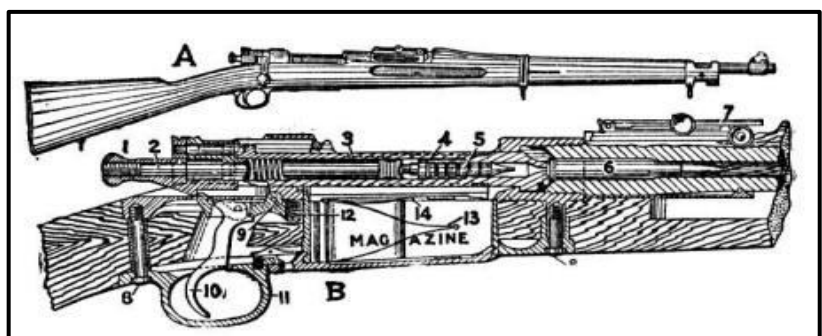
Before the outbreak of war in August 1914, Italy had sided with Germany and Austria-Hungary. However, tempted by offers of more land once the war was won, Italy entered the war in April 1915 on the side of the Allies. The Italian front is the name given to the fighting that took place along the border between Italy and Austria. The Italians only managed to advance a short way into Austria. Between 1915 and 1917 there were twelve battles fought along the river Isonzo, just inside the Austrian border, all of which were incomplete. After being defeated at the battle of Caporetto in 1917, the Italians were pushed back.

A wide variety of weapons used in WW1

a) Guns

The main weapon used by British soldiers in the trenches was the **bolt-action rifle**. 15 rounds could be fired in a minute and a person 1,400 metres away could be killed.

The first **Machine guns** needed 4-6 men to work them and had to be on a flat surface. They had the fire-power of 100 guns. Large field guns (artillery) had a long range and could deliver devastating



blows to the enemy but needed up to 12 men to work them. They fired **shells** which exploded on impact.



Figure 17: The first machine guns

b) Zeppelin

The **Zeppelin**, also known as blimp, was an airship that was used during the early part of the war in bombing raids by the Germans. They carried machine guns and bombs. However, they were abandoned because they were easy to shoot out of the sky.

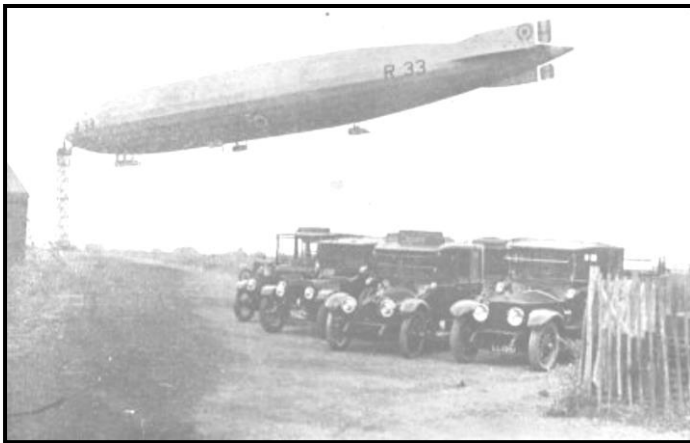


Figure 18: A Zeppelin

c) Gas

The German army were the first to use **chlorine gas** at the battle of Ypres in 1915. Chlorine gas causes a burning sensation in the throat and chest pains. Death is painful – you suffocate! The problem with chlorine gas is that the weather must be right.



Figure 19: Use of Chlorine Gas

Mustard gas was the most deadly weapon used. It was fired into the trenches in shells. It is colourless and takes 12 hours to take effect. Effects include – blistering skin, vomiting, sore eyes, internal and external bleeding. Death can take up to 5 weeks.

d) Tanks

The first tank was called 'Little Willie' and needed a crew of 3. Its maximum speed was 3mph and it could not cross trenches.

The more modern tank was not developed until just before the end of the war. It could carry 10 men, had a revolving turret and could reach 4mph.

Tanks were used for the first time in the First World War. They were developed to cope with the conditions on the Western Front.

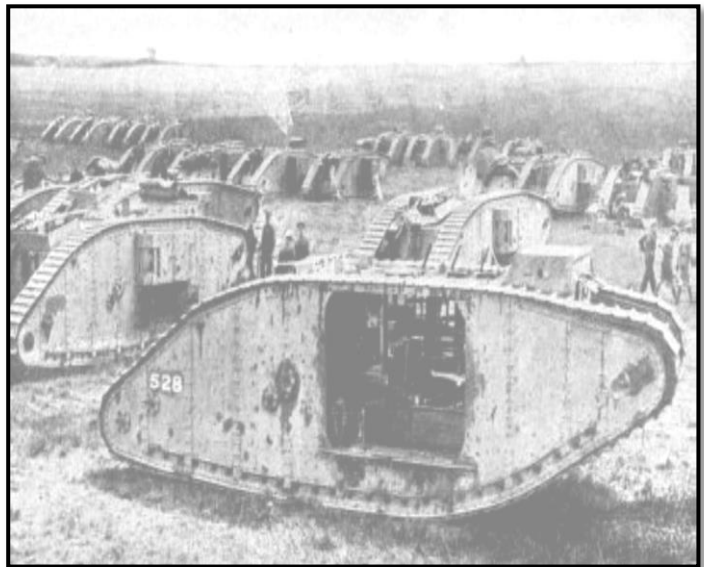


Figure 20: Tanks used in WW1

e) Air Planes

Planes were also used for the first time. At first they were used to deliver bombs and for spying work but became fighter aircraft armed with machine guns, bombs and sometimes canons. Fights between two planes in the sky became known as 'dogfights'

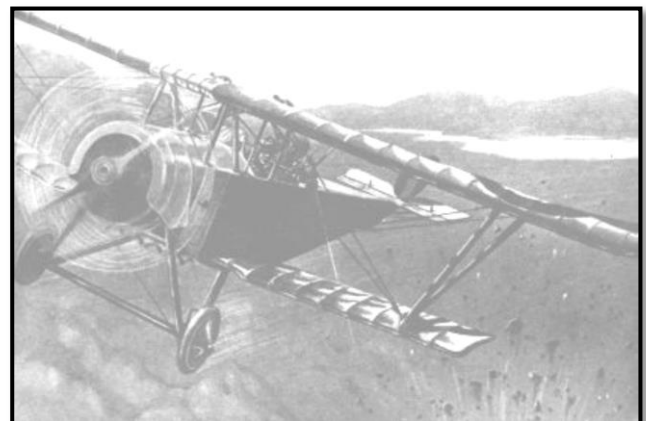


Figure 21: Planes used in war

f) Torpedoes

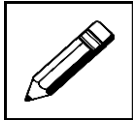
Torpedoes were used by submarines. The Germans used torpedoes to blow up ships carrying supplies from America to Britain. The Germans torpedoed the passenger liner Lusitania on May 1st 1915 which sank with a loss of 1,195 lives. Americans were outraged and joined the war in 1917 on the side of the allies.



Figure 22: Torpedoes



Now do Activity.

**Activity 11.3.1.4**

1. What is the Western Front and how was the Western Front opened?

2. Name the three costly battles fought on the Western front?

3. Identify the military weapons used for the first time to break the stalemate of the Western Front.

4. Why did Britain impose a blockade on Germany?

5. How did Germany respond to the British sea blockade?



6. Construct a timeline using the battles and the dates on the western front.
7. Match the weapons with the descriptions below.
 - a) This colourless gas is deadly _____
 - b) Used by all soldiers in World War One _____
 - c) Name of the first tank was _____
 - d) A fight between two planes _____
 - e) Also known as Blimp _____
 - f) This gas was first used at Ypres in 1915 _____
 - g) Tanks were first used at this battle _____
 - h) These weapons were used by submarines _____
 - i) This American liner was blown up _____
 - j) This gun needed 4 – 6 men to work it _____
 - k) This type of gun fired shells _____

Check your answers at the end of sub unit 11.3.1

**Sub topic 11.3.1.5: Stalemate on the Western Front**

In this sub topic, you look at the war on the Western Front. You start by studying the Stalemate on the Western Front where France, Great Britain and Germany fought.

By the end of this sub topic, students should be able to:

- define stalemate and Western Front
 - state the expectations of European leaders of WWI
-

The failure to implement the Schlieffen Plan made both sides dig themselves into trenches. It did not achieve the decisive German victory against France in the west. It did not solve Germany's problem of a two-front war. When the German invasion of France failed to take Paris or destroy French and British resistance on the river Marne, stalemate quickly followed, and a line of trenches soon stretched along the war's Western Front from the Swiss Alps to the English Channel. The Battle of the Marne signaled the end of the war of maneuver; this gave way to static warfare and the long line of trenches.

Stalemate continued on the western front until 1918, some success was made in the attempt to breakthrough. The difficulties of the trench system made it hard for advancement so the war was mostly defensive as both sides defended their line of trenches. The reasons for the continued stalemate are:

- There was barbed wire in no-man's land between the two lines of opposing trenches minimising confrontation and advancing.
- Reconnaissance by aircraft and observation balloons made it difficult for troops to attack without being spotted.
- Trenches were hard to capture because of the increased fire-power provided by machine guns. It would be suicidal and cavalries were useless.
- Every other ground was vulnerable to attack except the trenches.
- During the Battle of Ypres in 1915, the use of gas proved to be more deadly for both sides when there was a change in wind direction. The Germans first used the gas but it they had more casualties than the opposing side when the wind changed direction.

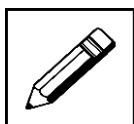
Finally, the failure of the Schlieffen Plan helps to explain the nature of the war on the Western Front throughout the next four years - a war of trenches, a static war, a war where efforts to break the stalemate resulted in enormous loss of life. See below an example of the conditions of stalemate as experienced by the Germans.



It was dark, and it rained and rained. From all directions one heard in the darkness the wounded calling, crying, and moaning. The wounded we had with us were likewise moaning and crying. All wanted to have their wounds dressed, but we had no more bandages. We tore off pieces of our dirty shirts and placed the rags on those sickening wounds. Men were dying one after the other. There were no doctors, no bandages; we had nothing whatever. You had to help the wounded and keep the French off at the same time. It was an unbearable, impossible state of things. It rained harder and harder. We were wet to our skins. We fired blindly into the darkness. The rolling fire of rifles increased, then died away, then increased again. We sappers were placed among the infantry. My neighbour gave me a dig in the ribs."

Box 1: Stalemate experience by a German

Now do Activity.



Activity 11.3.1.5

1. What does *stalemate* mean?

2. Why did stalemate develop on the Western Front?

3. How did stalemate develop?



4. What is the name of the battle that gave way to static warfare?

5. Describe the Schlieffen Plan- when? Who? What? Why?

Check your answers at the end of sub unit 11.3.1.6

Sub topic 11.3.1.6: The Nature of Trench Warfare

In this sub topic, you look at the Nature of Trench warfare. You start by defining trench warfare then explaining, and identifying the types of weapons used in trenches.

By the end of this sub topic, students should be able to:

- define trench warfare, no-man's land
- explain the nature of trench warfare
- identify the weaponry of World War I

Trench warfare is a form of land warfare using occupied fighting lines consisting largely of trenches, in which troops are significantly protected from the enemy's small arms fire and are sheltered from artillery. The most prominent case of trench warfare is the Western Front in World War I.



Figure 23: Life in the trenches

Trench warfare occurred when a revolution in firepower was not matched by similar advances in mobility, resulting in a warfare in which the defender held the advantage. In World War I, both sides constructed elaborate trench and dugout systems opposing each other along a front, protected from assault by barbed wire. The area between opposing trench lines (known as "no man's land") was fully exposed to artillery fire from both sides. Attacks, even if successful, often sustained severe casualties.



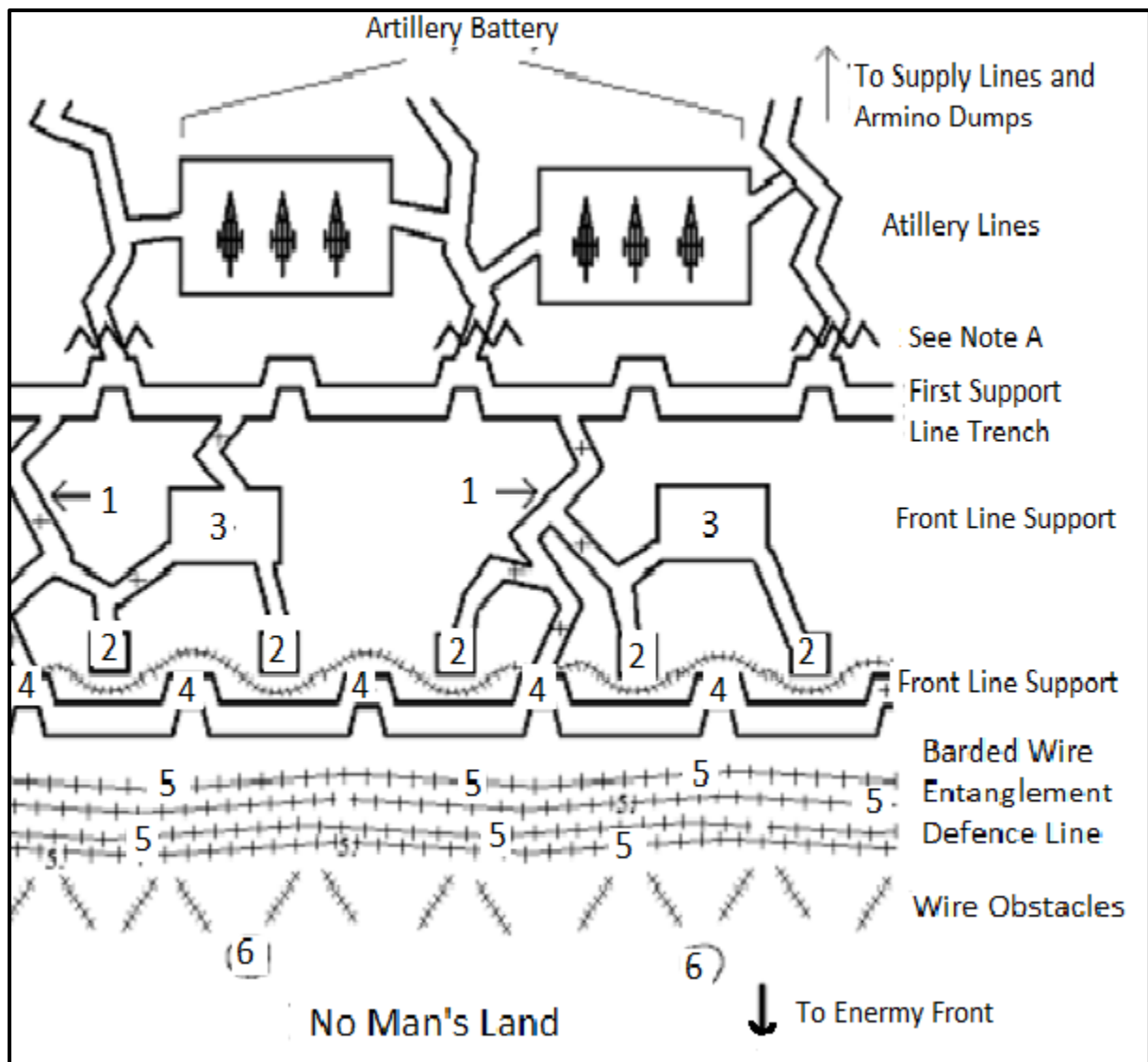
With the outbreak of World War I, Germany made an attempt at implementing the Schlieffen Plan. German troops marched through Luxembourg and Belgium to invade France. The French army was joined by British troops and the Allies put an end to German advances at the Battle of the Marne. Both armies tried to outflank each other in what came to be known as the “Race to the Sea.” The German troops, in an attempt to defend their territory, dug a long line of fortified trenches. The trench line of the Western Front stretched from the North Sea to the French-Swiss border, through East France. The Allied troops dug in as well, their trench line barely 300 feet from the enemy trenches. Thus, developing stalemate as they tried to defend their positions from each other by using the trenches they dug,

Construction of Trenches

- **System:** Trenches were constructed in parallel lines. The troops in the front-line trenches faced the enemies directly. Behind the front line was the second line of support trenches and behind the second line were the reserve trenches. Between the front line trenches of the Allied and Central troops was a stretch of land referred to as “No Man’s Land.” Barbed wire fences were erected at night to protect front line troops. Communication trenches were dug connecting the reserve trenches, second and first line trenches. These were used to supply ammunition, mail, and food.

1. Communication Trench
2. Machine Gun Nest
3. Underground Bunker
4. Traverse
5. Wire Break
6. Listening Post

Diagram 1: Trench System



Layout: The trenches were dug in zigzags rather than straight lines to ensure minimal damage in case of an attack. Trenches were dug deep enough for a soldier to stand. New recruits were cautioned against an impulse to peep over the trenches and lose their lives to a sniper's bullet. The trenches were protected from bullets by mud parapets and sandbags. A firing step was built for use by troops while shooting. The floors of the trenches were fitted with wooden planks called duckboards. These helped when the trenches would be flooded, making it difficult for troops to walk.



Figure 24: “No Man’s Land, Once a Forest in Flanders”.



Figure 25: Caught in the barbed wire fencing in the trenches.

Life in the Trenches

Soldiers in the trenches were put into a cycle known as “trench cycle.” They spent about sixty days in the front line trenches and another thirty days in the second line support trenches. Then, they served for about 120 days in the reserve trenches and then enjoyed sixty days of leave.

In the trenches, troops guarded against a dawn raid by the enemy with a “stand to” early every morning, in which the troops stood in wait, prepared to fire in case of an attack. At dawn, a round of firing, known as the “morning hate” marked the start of warfare. Sometimes this round of firing was merely to test the weapons and ward off an early morning ambush. Soldiers then cleaned their rifles and machine guns for an inspection by senior officers. Post-inspection, breakfast was served. Breakfast was often an unofficial truce between the Allied and Central troops. Following breakfast, soldiers were assigned daily chores such as draining the trenches and repairing duckboards, refilling sandbags, and repairing the trenches and cesspools. Soldiers were also assigned duties at listening posts, as snipers, or as sentries at the fire step. At dusk the soldiers again prepared for a “stand to.” This was also the time when ammunition and supplies were replenished. Falling asleep at the fire step was punishable by death at the hands of a firing squad. Night patrols into “No Man’s Land” monitored enemy movement and repaired the barbed wire fences.

Death and Diseases in the Trenches

The trenches were infested by millions of rats. The lack of proper waste disposal and dirty conditions, combined with a multitude of corpses to feed on, made the trenches ideal breeding grounds for the rats. This also caused the outbreak of a number of diseases. Lice infestation was another problem the soldiers had to put up with and caused trench fever. Severe pains and high fever took a toll on the health of the soldiers, and recovery took about twelve weeks. Soldiers in the trenches often suffered from trench foot, a condition caused by fungal infections. Standing long hours in the wet and unsanitary conditions of the trenches caused these infections, which quickly turned infected and needed surgical amputation of the limb.

A lack of sanitation in the trenches and irregular supply of drinking water caused a condition known as dysentery. Soldiers often had to rely on melted snow and water from shell-holes. Unsanitary drinking water caused bacterial infections of the intestines. Diarrhea, fever,

vomiting, and stomach aches were the main symptoms, and dehydration often turned fatal. Shell shock was another condition soldiers at the front suffered. Over 80,000 soldiers from the British Army were identified as suffering from shell shock in World War I.

Death was a common sight in the trenches. Be it the snipers' bullets or poison gas, disease or suicide, the soldiers in the trenches were forever ready to face death. Over 200, 000 soldiers died in the trenches of the Western Front in World War I.



These feet have trench foot and frostbite caused by standing for hours in a freezing waterlogged trench. To avoid this condition soldiers were told to change their socks regularly, wear waterproof footwear or gumboots and cover their feet with whale oil.

Figure 26: Trench Foot

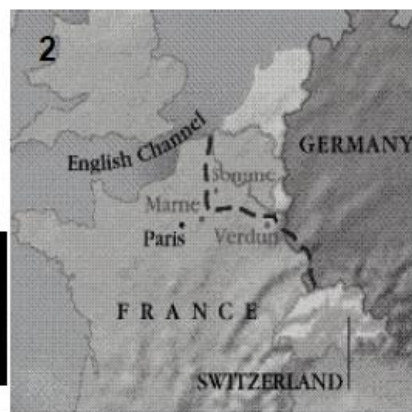


Figure 27: Left: Frontline Trench on the Somme – French, One sentry takes watch while the others sleep.

The Battle of Somme – one of the western front battles in pictures.

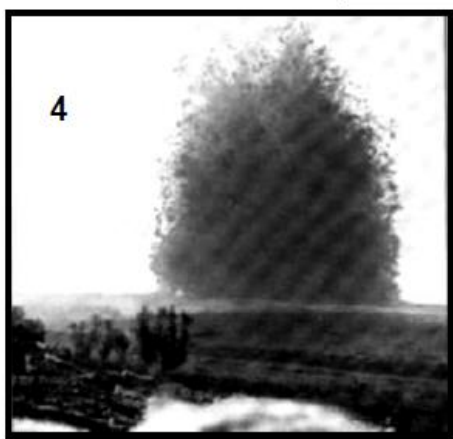


1. General Haig – the man who planned the Battle of the Somme



2. The battle line stretched some 25 miles

3. British troops on their way to the Somme. 750,000 men were sent to the Battle of the Somme



4. At 7.20 am 40,000 pounds of explosive was detonated under a German machine gun position at Beaumont Hamel.

5. The bombing had not destroyed the barbed wire.



6. By the end of the first day 60,000 British soldiers were dead.



7. Tanks were first used at the Battle of the Somme

By the end of the battle the British had advanced 8km.

Now do Activity.

**Activity 11.3.1.6**

1. What is trench warfare?

2. Explain how trench warfare developed.

3. On which front did trench warfare take place?

4. How many lines of trenches were built?

5. What is the name of the area between the two opposing lines of trenches?



6. Describe briefly what life was like in the trenches.

7. What kind of diseases did the soldiers experience in the trenches?

Check the answers at the end of the sub unit 11.3.1

Sub topic 11.3.1.7: The War on Home Front: The impact on Britain and Germany

In this sub topic, you look at the war on the home front. This means the impact of the war on Britain and Germany.

By the end of this sub topic, students should be able to:

- define home front
- explain World War I on the home front

When war was declared in August 1914, there were street celebrations throughout Great Britain. Such scenes were repeated throughout Europe. Many believed that the war would be over by Christmas 1914 and many young men rushed to answer the call to arms - as did many men who were too old to serve but wanted to show their patriotism. The government asked for 100, 000 volunteers but got 750, 000 in just one month. The public was quickly deluged with numerous propaganda posters to encourage everyone in their nation's time of need.

Those who did not want to join the military could be targeted by people as cowards - being handed white feathers and being refused service by shops and pubs. Many believed that victory against Germany was a certainty and the vast bulk of the nation was supportive not only of the declaration of war but also of any man who wanted to join up.

This enthusiasm did not last. After the Battle of the Marne, it became obvious that there would be not quick victory and as trench warfare took its hold, the true reality of a modern war became obvious. War-weariness set in. The government could not hide the fact that casualties were awful.

The Germans also attacked Britain itself. For the first time, civilians were targeted with bombing raids by Zeppelins (planes) and coastal raids by the German Navy. The first Zeppelin raid on London was at midnight on May 31st 1915 bombed the capital killing seven people and causing a lot of damage. In the months that followed, fifty further Zeppelin raids took place and a blackout was imposed on the city. By October 1915, these raids effectively ended when pilots from the Royal Naval Air Service flew night patrols to protect the city. On December 16th, 1914, the east coast towns of London were attacked by the German Navy killing 119 people including children.



Figure 28: Women working in mines to produce for factories making ammunitions.

The demand for war ammunitions meant that factories worked all but round the clock to ensure that soldiers were well supplied with ammunition. This invariably led to accidents as safety was sometimes seen as secondary to producing munitions. The worst factory accident was in the East End of London. On January 19, 1917, the munitions factory exploded and 69 people were killed and over 400 injured. Extensive damage was done to the area around the factory. In all, a total of 1, 500 civilians were killed during the war.

The Home Front in Germany

Germany entered the Great War better prepared than any other nation. Yet, they did not believe the war would last very long. When the war began to drag on for years, Germany found itself in a difficult position. The raw materials need by its factories to produce military equipment was severely hampered by the British naval blockade. The blockade cut Germany off from overseas commerce and colonies. Coal and iron ore to make steel were plentiful, but resources like magnesium, oil rubber and cotton could not be grown or existed inside of Germany. Many of these products were required for the production of ammunition.



Figure 29: Food queues in Germany

Food also became a major concern for the war effort. German agriculture was very good, but required fertilizers and animal supplements from other countries. This would become a major factor in the ability to continue the war. By the end of 1914, the German government began to control the food production of the country. During the winter of 1914, the German people began eating K-Bread (Kriegsbrot-war bread). This type of bread replaced wheat with potatoes as the main ingredient. The best food was sent to the front lines to ensure the soldiers had enough energy to fight and civilians sacrificed good food. As the war dragged on, Germany turned to science to produce foodstuffs for the people. Several food items in use today were developed during the war. One of the biggest was the production of margarine (an edible oil product) to replace butter. It was at that time that one of the worst winters in European history hit the country. The winter of 1916 became known as the "turnip winter." A premature frost destroyed the potato harvest that year which had become a major source of food for the people. Instead the turnip, which did not suffer from the frost, became the main source of



food for the country. Problems in the factories with millions of men going off to fight, a large-scale labour crisis emerged in the factories. Who would build the weapons and equipment necessary to fight when most of the men were at the front? New laws were established to put all males between 17 and 60, who were not in the army, to work in the factories. Children were used to help harvest crops on local farms. Finally, French and Belgian people under occupation were deported to Germany to work in the factories. In 1918, food and materials had reached a breaking point within Germany. Soldiers on leave would return home to see their children undernourished, short of heating fuels and wearing old threadbare clothing. With all the best food going to the frontlines, civilians paid a heavy price for the war effort.

Now do Activity.



Activity 11.3.1.7

1. Why did many men rush to join the army?

2. How were those not enlisted in the war treated?

3. Why didn't the people's enthusiasm last?

4. How were the British civilians attacked by the Germans?



5. What happened on the 19th of January 1917?

Check your answers at the end of sub unit 11.3.1



Sub topic 11.3.1.8: Economy, Recruitment, conscription and propaganda in Britain and Germany

You will be looking at the events and changes in Europe in the 1900 leading up to World War I and the period between the two World Wars. You start by studying the economy, recruitment, conscription and propaganda in Britain and Germany.

By the end of this sub topic, the students should be able to:

- defines recruitment, conscription and propaganda
- explains the early recruitment efforts and conscription in Britain
- identifies conscientious objectors
- explains British wartime propaganda

The war led to inflation and many poorer families could not afford the increase in food prices. The impact of the German U-boat campaign also led to food shortages and this hit home when rationing was brought in by the government in February 1918. As nearly everything was directed towards the war effort, fuel was also in short supply and this was also rationed.

Propaganda in World War I was particularly influential in the years 1915 and 1916 when it was at its peak, serving to recruit volunteers in the hundreds of thousands each year. The recruitment propaganda of the time achieved its aim in a number of ways. Firstly, it influenced men through means of persuasion, fear, guilt, confrontation and accusation. Secondly, it appealed to the emotions of the women, friends and family of those who were eligible to go to war.

It was particularly the propaganda posters that were popular at the time. The reasons could be that they were cheap and easy to create, able to be displayed anywhere and were immediately able to convey meaning to a wide audience. Recruitment propaganda perhaps achieved success because it amplified the original reasons for Australians wanting to be involved in the war. It can be concluded that Australian propaganda posters utilized six different aspects to appeal to men to enlist.

These included:

1. Appealing to their patriotism by summoning people to 'rally around the flag' and reminding them of their duty to the Empire and the British.
2. Utilising a gender approach which made men feel they needed to enlist to prove their sporting aptitude, courage and masculinity.
3. Inviting peers and family to place pressure and shame on men for not applying in order to make them feel ashamed and cowardly.
4. Encouraging a spirit of adventure and a desire to see the world by using a recruitment poster which places emphasis on a physical, sport-like side of war.
5. Self-interest, including a chance to have a secure job which was relatively well paid.

6. Exaggerating the hatred and fear of the Germans by allowing people to think that they might attack their friends and families.

Recruitment propaganda, however, omitted important facts from the posters. These omissions gave people a false impression of what war was really like. The propaganda intentionally neglected to mention the realities which the soldiers had to endure, such as a rationed, unvaried diet, adverse climatic conditions, physically arduous training and, most importantly, the substantial risk of injury and death.

With volunteer numbers almost exhausted, there was the necessity for more drastic recruitment measures to be implemented. These included the introduction of a six o'clock curfews and the most controversial measure, however, was that of conscription. Two national opinion polls were held on whether Australia should introduce compulsory military service overseas.

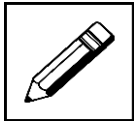


Figure 30: World War 1 Conscription Propaganda Poster

Conscription propaganda worked in much the same way that recruitment propaganda had. It utilized techniques of persuasion, fear and guilt, as well as instilling a sense of patriotism and hatred for the Germans. Regardless of whether or not the conscription posters were encouraging their audience to vote 'yes' or 'no' they presented their side as the more moral, loyal and safe option for society. For example, if the poster wanted people to vote 'yes' to conscription it would often emphasized the community's fear by allowing them to believe that if their men were not sent to fight overseas the Germans would invade Australia. If the propaganda was supporting a 'no' vote, it often placed emphasis on the notion that men were being sent against their wishes to meet their death overseas.



Now do Activity.

**Activity 11.3.1.8**

1. What do the following words mean?

(a) Propaganda

(b) Conscription

(c) Recruitment

(d) Inflation

(e) Rationing

2. How did recruitment propaganda achieve its aims?



3. Study Figure 30 and answer the following questions.

a) Which force in the war do these men represent?

b) What is the propaganda in the poster?

c) How does it promote patriotism?

Check your answers at the end of sub unit 11.3.1

**Sub topic 11.3.1.9: The Wartime experience of women in Britain, and changing attitudes to the war in Britain and Germany**

In this sub topic, you look at wartime experiences of women in Britain and changing attitudes to the war in Britain and Germany.

By the end of this sub topic, students should be able to:

- explain the recruitment efforts and conscription in Germany
- explain German wartime propaganda
- state the experience of women in Britain during the First World War
- explain female suffrage and the impact of the war on women

Women in World War I were mobilised in unprecedented numbers on all sides. In Britain during World War I roughly two million women replaced men at their jobs. Some of these were positions women might have been expected to fill before the war, such as clerical jobs, but one effect of the war was not just the number of jobs, but the type: women were suddenly in demand for work on the land, on transport, in hospitals and most significantly, in industry and engineering. Women were involved in the vital munitions factories, building ships and doing work such as loading and unloading coal.

The vast majority of these women were drafted into the civilian work force to replace conscripted men or work in greatly expanded munitions factories. Thousands served in the military in support roles, for example, nurses. In Russia, the quantity of women in industry went up from 26 to 43 percent, while in Austria a million women joined the workforce. In France, where women were already a relatively large proportion of the workforce, female employment still grew by 20 percent. Women doctors, although initially refused places working with the military, were able to also break into a male dominated world – women being considered more suitable as nurses – whether through setting up their own volunteer hospitals or, later, being included officially when medical services tried to broaden to meet the war's higher than expected demand.

Women sustained their nations in many other ways. Most working-class women already worked outside the home for wages as well as undertaking domestic duties inside the home. Female factory workers continued to labour alongside men; they sustained the production of textiles (including uniforms) but many also shifted into metal working in factories, creating war material such as munitions. Factory work and waged labour were not new for many of these women. However, the substantial shift of female workers from things like domestic service into industrial work, and an expansion of the range of tasks within factories and other workspaces, was unprecedented. The widely circulated images of women taking on industrial, war-related labour, such as the Italian women featured here, helped reinforce the message that women were making vital contributions to the war effort in place of their mobilized and absent men. Indeed such women became a key economic force so that the strike by French women caused a great deal of consternation for the government which was simultaneously



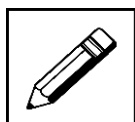
grappling with mutinies and fearful of grievances. Even more significantly, a strike by women in the early months of 1917 in Petrograd helped spark the Russian Revolution.

Some experiences at home were comparable to those of men. For instance, due to innovations in wartime technology, some women (and children) found themselves facing new means of waging war, such as air power and chemical weapons. Air raids on densely populated cities like Paris and London killed and injured women literally in their homes.

The First World War was the first modern industrialised war, a total war. Britain could no longer remain an island in 'splendid isolation' and war could no longer be confined to the battlefield, a realisation that was emphasised by the threat of air raids and coastal attacks. The women of Britain became active citizens as all areas of men were focused on during the war effort. 'Home Front' was the term used to describe the part of the population that was not actively involved in the fighting but which was vital to it. The ability to keep the Home Front running ensured the supply of essential munitions, food and other materials to the Front.

In contrast, Germany saw fewer women join the workplace than other belligerents, largely due to pressure from trade unions, who were afraid women would undercut men's jobs. These unions were partly responsible for forcing the government to turn away from moving women into work more aggressively: the Auxiliary Service for the Fatherland law, designed to shift workers from civilian into military industry and increase the quantity of the potential workforce employed, only focused on men aged 17 to 60.

Now do Activity.



Activity 11.3.1.9

1. How did the role of women change during the war?

2. List three types of work done by males that were done by women during the war?



3. List ways in which women and children were affected by the war.

4. How did women contribute to the Russian revolution?

5. How did the role of women change after the war?

Check your answers to sub unit 11.3.1

Sub topic 11.3.1.10: The Peace Settlement (1918-1921)

In this sub topic, you look at the peace settlement of 1918 to 1920. You will look at who was involved in the decision-making of the Peace settlement, and which countries were affected as a result of the decisions made in these conferences in Paris.

By the end of this sub topic, the students should be able to:

- define peace settlement
- state the background to the peace conference
- identify the world leaders to the peace conference

The peace settlement in Europe at the end of World War 1 was achieved by the conclusion of treaties between the victorious allies and each of the defeated nations. These treaties were negotiated and signed in Paris during 1919 and 1920. The treaty with Germany was called the Treaty of Versailles. It was signed at the Palace of Versailles just outside Paris in June 1919. This was the main treaty that had more effects and redrew the map of Europe. The lesser powers of the defeated alliance also signed individual treaties with the victors.



Figure 31: The Hall of Mirrors in Versailles -Paris

Wilson had devised a 14-point plan that he believed would bring stability to Europe.

1. Open Diplomacy - There should be no secret treaties between powers.
2. Freedom of Navigation - Seas should be free in both peace and war.

3. Free Trade - The barriers to trade between countries be removed.
4. Multilateral Disarmament - All countries should reduce their armed forces.
5. Colonies – People in European colonies should have a say in their future.
6. Russia - Russia should be allowed to operate whatever government it wanted and has to be accepted, supported and welcomed.
7. Belgium – Belgium should be evacuated and restored to pre-war status.
8. France - should have Alsace-Lorraine and any lands taken away during the war restored.
9. Italy – The Italian border should be readjusted according to nationality.
10. National Self – Determination - National groups in Europe be given their independence.
11. Romania, Montenegro and Serbia – Should be evacuated and Serbia should have an outlet to the sea.
12. Turkey – The people of Turkey should have a say in their future.
13. Poland – Poland should become an independent state with a sea outlet.
14. League of Nations – An assembly of all nations be formed to protect world peace in the future.



Figure 32: The Big Four – Lloyd George, Vittorio Orlando, Georges Clemenceau and Woodrow Wilson

World War I ended at 11am on 11 November 1918. In 1919, Lloyd George of England, Vittorio Orlando of Italy, Georges Clemenceau of France and Woodrow Wilson from the US met to discuss how Germany was to be made to pay for the damage world war one had caused. Germany expected a treaty based on these fourteen points. However, negotiations between the 'big four' Lloyd George of England, Vittorio Orlando of Italy, Georges Clemenceau of France and Woodrow Wilson of America did not go smoothly.

- Wilson believed that his fourteen points was the only way to secure everlasting peace.



- The French however, wanted the defeated nations to be punished severely and believed Wilson's plan too lenient.
- Privately Lloyd George sided with Wilson although he was concerned about the threat from Communism, however, the British public, like Clemenceau, wanted Germany punished severely. Lloyd George knew that if he sided with Wilson he would lose the next election.

The Peace Settlement

Five separate treaties were written by the winners, Allied Powers, to the losers, Central Powers. There was one major one and other minor ones. The treaties were;

- a) Treaty of Versailles, written to Germany and signed on the 28th June 1919 in Paris.
- b) Treaty Of Sevres, written to Turkey and signed on 10th August 1920
- c) Treaty St Germain, written to Austria and signed on the 10th August 1919.
- d) Treaty of Neuilly written to Bulgaria and signed on 27th Nov 1919
- e) Treaty of Trianon, written to Hungary and signed on 4th June 1920.

The treaties were based on the principle of national self-determination; as a result there were creation of new separate states in eastern and southern Europe. These other minor treaties were not prepared by a general peace conference but by the 'Big Three', the USA, Britain and France.

The Treaty of St Germaine signed with Austria on 10 September, 1919 required it to recognize the independence of Czechoslovakia, Poland, Yugoslavia and Hungary. Austria also had to pay reparations and reduce the size of her army to 30, 000 men. Her proposed union with Germany was forbidden. The new Austria was only 25 percent of the old empire with 20 percent of its population.

The Treaty of Trianon signed with Hungary on 4th June 1920, was equally severe. Hungary lost 75 percent of its total land area and its army were reduced to 35, 000 men.

The Treaty of Neuilly with Bulgaria was signed on the 27th of November, 1919. Bulgaria lost territory in Thrace to Greece and some in Macedonia to the new state of Yugoslavia. Her army was limited to 20, 000 men. The settlement with Turkey was more complex. The first treaty with Turkey was the

Treaty of Sevres which was signed on the 10th August, 1920. However this was successfully resisted by the Turks and after Turkey came under the leadership of Mustafa Kemal and a new treaty was drawn up in 1923 at Lausanne in Switzerland. The **Treaty of Lausanne** dropped the requirement for Turkey to pay war reparations. However, in 1920, most of the old Ottoman Empires territory was given to Britain and France to administer as mandated territories. These included Palestine, Mesopotamia (Iraq) and the Transjordan was given to Britain and France.

The peace treaties that emerged from the conferences at Versailles, Saint-Germaine, Trianon, Neuilly, and Sevres were on the whole inadequately enforced by the victorious powers,



leading to the resurgence of militarism and aggressive nationalism in Germany and to social disorder throughout much of Europe.

Now do Activity.



Activity 11.3.1.10

1. What does the term 'National Self Determination' mean?

2. Name the treaty written by the winners to:

- a) Germany

- b) Austria

- c) Bulgaria

- d) Hungary

3. Where were the treaties written?

4. Who are the 'Big Three'?

5. In which treaties were these clauses a part to?

- a) Demilitarised to 20,000 men

- b) Recognition of Independence to Poland and Czechoslovakia

- c) Hungary lost 75 percent of its total land area

- d) Forbid union with Germany

- e) Signed on the 10th of August 1920

- f) Mustafa Kemal's new treaty

Check your answers at the end of sub unit 11.3.1

**Sub topic 11.3.1.11: Paris Peace Settlement 1919, and the Treaty of Versailles**

You will be looking at the events and changes in Europe in the 1900 leading up to World War I and the period between the two World Wars. You start by studying the Paris Peace settlements and the Treaty of Versailles.

By the end of this sub topic, the students should be able to:

- define peace treaty
- identify the Paris Peace Settlement treaties
- explain the provisions of the treaty
- explain the consequences of the treaty

The Paris Peace Conference was the meeting of the Allied victors, following the end of World War I to set the peace terms for the defeated Central Powers following the armistices of 1918. It took place in Paris during 1919 and involved diplomats from more than 32 countries and nationalities. The major decisions were the creation of the League of Nations; the five peace treaties with defeated enemies, including the Treaty of Versailles with Germany; the awarding of German and Ottoman overseas possessions as "mandates," chiefly to Britain and France; reparations imposed on Germany, and the drawing of new national boundaries to better reflect the forces of nationalism and self-determination. The main result was the Treaty of Versailles, with Germany, in which laid the guilt for the war on "the aggression of Germany and her allies." This provision proved humiliating for Germany and set the stage for very high reparations Germany was supposed to pay (it paid only a small portion before reparations ended in 1931). The Paris Peace Conference was controlled and dictated by the "Big Four". The "Big Four" were the President of the United States, Woodrow Wilson; the Prime Minister of Great Britain, David Lloyd George; the Prime Minister of France, Georges Clemenceau; and the Prime Minister of Italy, Vittorio Orlando. They met together informally many times and made all the major decisions.

Terms of the Treaty of Versailles

There were a total of 440 clauses in the final treaty. The first 26 clauses dealt with the establishment of the League of Nations. The remaining 414 clauses spelled out Germany's punishment.

General Clauses:

The establishment of the League of Nations

War Guilt clause – Germany to accept blame for starting the war.

Financial Clauses:

Reparations – Germany was to pay for the damage caused by the war. The figure of £6,600 million was set some time after the signing of the treaty.

Military Clauses:

Army – was to be reduced to 100, 000 men and no tanks were allowed



Navy – Germany was only allowed 6 ships and no submarines

Air force – Germany was not allowed an air force

Rhineland – The Rhineland area was to be kept free of German military personnel and weapons

Territorial Clauses:

Anschluss – Germany was not allowed to unite with Austria.

Land – Germany lost land to a number of other countries. Alsace-Lorraine was returned to France, Eupen and Malmedy were given to Belgium; North Schleswig was given to Denmark. Land was also taken from Germany and given to Czechoslovakia and Poland. The League of Nations took control of Germany's colonies. The treaty with Germany was called the Treaty of Versailles. It was signed at the Palace of Versailles just outside Paris in June 1919. This was the main treaty with Germany and the Allies.

The treaty contained:

1. A "War Guild Clause" requiring Germany to accept sole responsibility for the war.
2. Germany pays war reparations, later set at 6, 600 million British pounds.
3. Germany gives up all colonies and territories and be forbidden to unite with German-speaking Austria.
4. The Rhineland is permanently demilitarized, providing a buffer for France.
5. A League of Nations is created to resolve international disputes and assist nations that were victims of aggression.
6. The German, Austro-Hungarian, and Turkish empires to be broken into nations, mandates, or protectorates governed by the League or the victorious empires.
7. The German Army to be limited to 100, 000 men with no conscription, tanks, heavy artillery, aircraft, or airships. The German navy to be reduced with no submarines.
8. That Germany lost territory: the province of Eupen-Malmédy to Belgium; Alsace-Lorraine to France; Schleswig-Holstein to Denmark; and most importantly much of western Prussia to create a new Polish state, Poland. Significantly this now meant that East Prussia was cut off from the rest of Germany by what became known as the "Polish Corridor". This was to provide the new Polish state access to the Baltic. The German city of Danzig, at the head of the Polish Corridor was to become an international city administered by the League.

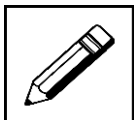
Consequences

The newly formed German democratic government saw the Versailles Treaty as a "dictated peace". Although France, which had suffered more materially than the other parties in the "Big Four," had insisted upon harsh terms, the peace treaty did not ultimately help to settle the international disputes which had initiated World War I. On the contrary, it tended to hinder inter-European cooperation and make more fractious the underlying issues which had caused the war in the first place. Germany was bitter and angry saying that the treaty was bias, harsh and intolerable. It made the Germans experience hardships and they wanted revenge from the first day. The Germans, who were Aryans, were a proud people and could not take it.



Figure 33: The Cartoon depicts the terms of the treaties.

Now do Activity.



Activity 11.3.1.11

1. What were the major decisions made in the Paris peace Conference of 1919?

2. Who were the Big Four who controlled and dictated the peace settlement?

3. What is a 'War Guilt Clause'?



4. How much reparation was Germany expected to pay?

5. What happened to 'Rhine Land'?

6. What happened to land lost by Germany and its allies?

7. Explain the term, 'Polish Corridor'.

8. List provinces that Germany lost.

9. Do the crossword.

Across

1 This forbade union with Austria (9)

4 This was set at £6,600 million (11)

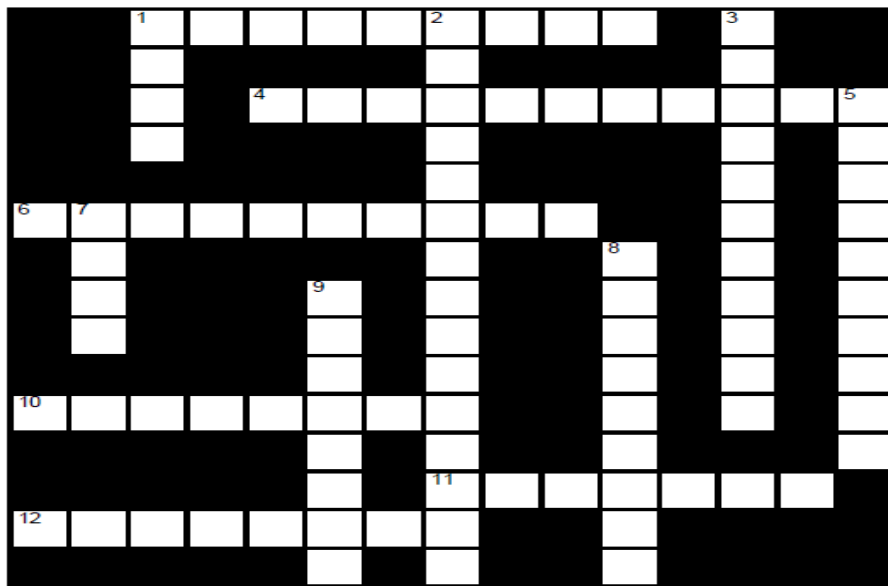
6 French negotiator (10)

10 Clause that made Germany accept blame (3,5)

11 Italian negotiator (7)



12 Number of points in Wilson's plan (8)

**Down**

- 1 This was to be reduced to 100,000 (4)
- 2 This was to act as a peace-keeping body (6,2,7
- 3 British negotiator (5,6)
- 5 Germany was not allowed to have any of these (10)
- 7 This was lost to other countries (4)
- 8 This was to be a military-free zone (9)
- 9 France wanted Germany to be this (8)

Check your answers at the end of sub unit 11.3.1

**Sub topic 11.3.1.12: The League of Nations**

In this sub topic, you will look at the League of Nations its role as a peace keeper among nations. You will identify its strengths and weaknesses and its peace keeping activities.

By the end of this sub topic, students should be able to:

- describe the origin and structure of the League of Nations
 - identify the strengths and weaknesses in its structure
 - describe the peace keeping activities of the League of Nations
-

League of Nations was an international association of countries created to maintain peace among the nations of the world. The victors of World War I (1914-1918) including Britain, France, Italy, Japan, and the United States drew up a covenant for the League in 1919. President Woodrow Wilson of the United States was the chief planner (brainchild) of the League of Nations. The League was established in January 1920, with headquarters in Geneva, Switzerland. The organisation ceased to function after World War II began in 1939. It was formally dissolved in April 1946, and the United Nations took its place.

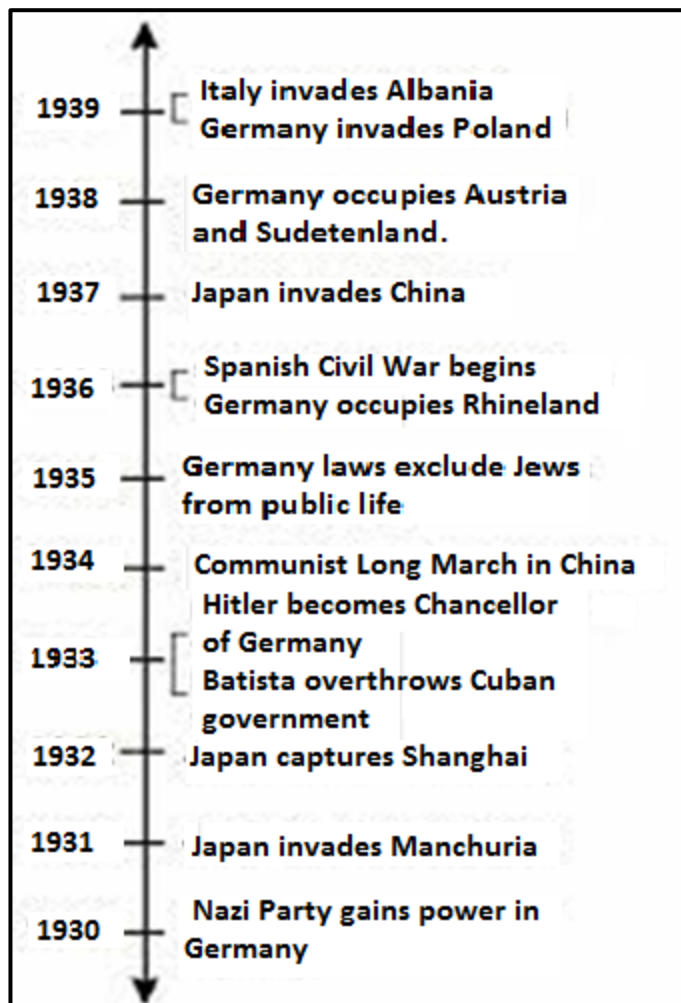
Wilson got other countries to agree to his plans for the League, but he and members of the U.S. Senate disagreed over the terms on which the United States would join. In March 1920, the U.S. Senate rejected the Treaty of Versailles, which would have made the United States a member. Most Americans did not want to worry themselves with conflicts overseas, (especially a war torn and bankrupt Europe) and the United States never joined the League of Nations. They did not want to be financially burdened by League of Nations.

Powers and organisation

The League Covenant contained articles pledging member nations to preserve the independence and territory of all members against attack. Members agreed to submit any disputes that might lead to war either to arbitration (decision by a third party) or to an investigation by the League Council. They promised not to go to war with any member that agreed to the recommendations of a court of arbitration or the League Council.

If any member went to war in violation of these articles, member nations agreed they would apply economic sanctions (penalties), such as stopping trade with the offending nation. At the League Council's request, they would also use military force against that nation.

The Council was the principal peacekeeping agency. Its size varied from 8 to 14 members during the League's history. The most powerful members of the League had permanent seats on the Council. Britain, France, Germany, Italy, Japan, and the Soviet Union held permanent seats during the years they were members of the League. The remaining seats were rotated among the small nations of the League.



The Assembly was composed of all member nations, and each member had one vote. The Assembly controlled the League budget, admitted new members, elected the temporary Council members, and made amendments to the Covenant. On these matters, the Assembly could decide by a two-thirds or a majority vote.

The Secretariat provided the administrative staff of the League. A secretary-general, who was nominated by the Council and approved by the Assembly, headed a staff of about 600 officials. These officials assisted the peacekeeping work of the League and provided personnel for special study commissions on disarmament, the protection of ethnic minorities, and colonial affairs.

Timeline with League of Nations in Action

The League in Action

Wilson and the other statesmen who designed the League hoped it would lead nations to stop seeking protection through special alliances. Instead, they favoured a system of *collective security*, in which the security of each member would be guaranteed by the protection of all. For collective security to work, it was essential that all League members especially the most powerful ones, come to the aid of any member attacked.

The most powerful nations did not agree that collective security was the main purpose of the League.

- France saw the League mainly as an instrument to maintain the territorial settlement and arms restrictions imposed on Germany after World War I.
- The Germans resented the League because it seemed to support the Treaty of Versailles.
- British leaders saw it as a meeting place for powerful nations to consult in the event of a threat to peace. *But they did not want to commit themselves to it.*
- The Soviet Union believed the League was an imperialist fraud because Communism taught that war was inevitable among capitalist nations.

Some of the failures of the League of Nations were during the 1930s were;

- Japan and Italy showed their disregard for collective security by attacking member nations. Japan withdrew from the League in 1933 because the League refused to recognize its conquest of Manchuria.
- Germany, admitted to the League in 1926, withdrew in 1933 because the League would not change the arms limitations imposed on Germany after World War I.
- An arms build-up by Germany under Dictator Adolf Hitler led the Soviet Union to join the League in 1934.
- The league failed when Italy attacked Ethiopia in October 1935. Italy withdrew from the League in 1937 to join Japan and Germany in an alliance against the Soviet Union.
- The Soviet Union was expelled in 1939 for attacking Finland.

The League achieved some success in ending armed conflicts between small nations. For example:

- it ended fighting between Greece and Bulgaria in 1925
- and another war between Poland and Lithuania in 1927

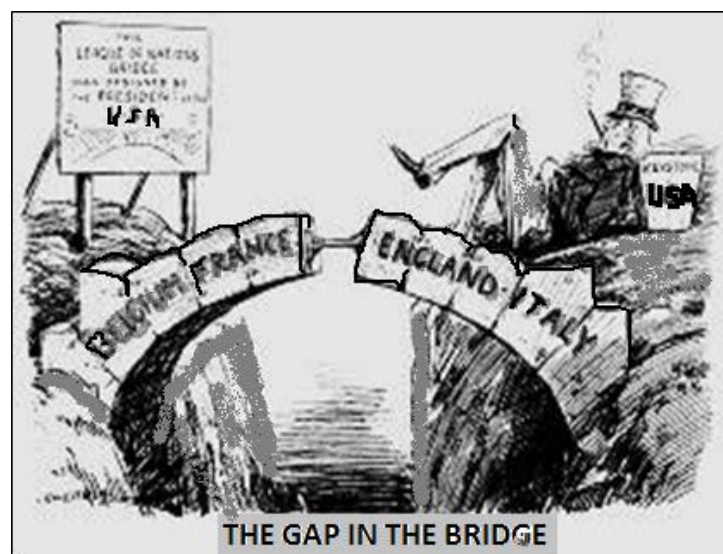


Figure 34: Cartoon depicting the League of Nations

When a powerful nation was involved, the League was ineffective, for instance, the taking of Ethiopia by Italy in 1935. Britain and France were not willing to use force or to employ measures that might risk war. They failed to use strong economic measures, such as an oil embargo, which would have seriously hurt the Italian war effort.

By May 1936, Italy had conquered Ethiopia. The League canceled its sanctions in July and had failed miserably to stop Italy's aggression towards Ethiopia.

The French and British shared responsibility for the League's failure during the Ethiopian crisis. France feared that strong League action might lead Italy to join Germany in an anti-French alliance. The British feared that Italy might attack the British-controlled Suez Canal or even



launch air strikes against English cities. Neither government was prepared to face such risks. The Ethiopian case weakened the League as an instrument to keep peace.

Now do Activity.



Activity 11.3.1.12

1. When was the League of Nations formed?

2. Why was the League of Nations formed?

3. Who was the master planner or whose brainchild was it?

4. Why wasn't USA a member of the League of Nations?

5. List three success and failures of the League in trying to solve its members' issues.

Failures	Successes
a)	a)
b)	b)
c)	c)



6. Give three reasons why the League of Nations failed to maintain world peace.

(a)

(b)

(c)

Check your answers at the end of sub unit 11.3.1

Sub topic 11.3.1.13: Post War expectations and experiences in Britain (1918-1921)

In this sub topic, you look at the post-war expectations and experience in Great Britain from 1918 to 1921.

By the end of this sub topic, students should be able to:

- define post-war
- explain the post-war expectations and experience in Britain



Figure 35: Crowd Celebrates end of War – Trafalgar Square in London

Vast crowds gathered in London's Trafalgar Square (above picture) to celebrate the victorious end of the First World War on 11 November 1918. However, the joyous mood was short-lived. Post-war Britain did not seem like a country that had just experienced a great military triumph. Various political, economic and social problems ensured that the return to peacetime conditions was not a soft landing.

- The Representation of the People Act gave the vote for the first time to all men over the age of 21 and to women over the age of 30.
- The Liberal Party support declined and its status as Britain's 'second' party of government was taken by the Labour Party. The first-ever Labour government - a coalition led by Ramsay MacDonald - took office in January 1924.
- During the First World War, Britain incurred debts equivalent to 136 percent of its GNP
- Major creditor, the USA, began to emerge as the world's strongest economy.
- More British than German workers were involved in strikes in 1919.



- Unemployment in 1921 reached its highest point (11.3%) since records had begun.
- Working women were forced to cede their jobs to returning soldiers.
- Swingeing cuts in public spending were introduced in 1922 to ward off inflation.

Nonetheless, though successive governments failed to create a 'land fit for heroes', living standards and productivity levels in inter-war Britain generally improved. It was certainly more democratic. Previously under-represented groups such as women and, in particular, the working class became better organised and more powerful during the war. This, in turn, encouraged the growth of less deferential attitudes, as did the cross-class experiences of the trenches.

Yet, though the working class became a more powerful political force, it shrank numerically. Growing numbers of the working population in inter-war Britain were employed in 'white collar' jobs. The First World War thus marked an important staging post on the road to 'modern' British society.

Germany - Burdensome reparations imposed after World War I, coupled with a general inflation period in Europe in the 1920s caused spiraling hyperinflation of the German *Reichsmark* by 1923. This hyperinflation period combined with the effects of the Great Depression (beginning in 1929) to seriously undermine the stability of the German economy, wiping out the personal savings of the middle class and producing massive unemployment.

Such economic chaos did much to increase social unrest, destabilizing the fragile Weimar Republic. Efforts of the Western European powers to marginalize Germany undermined and isolated its democratic leaders and emphasized the need to restore German prestige through remilitarization and expansion.

The social and economic chaos that followed World War I powerfully destabilized Germany's democracy and gave rise to many radical right wing parties in Weimar Germany. Particularly destroying was the harsh provisions of Versailles which caused the general population to think that Germany had been "stabbed in the back" by those who had helped to form the new Weimar government and broker the peace with Germans. Many Germans forgot that they had applauded the fall of the Kaiser, had initially welcomed parliamentary democratic reform, and had rejoiced at the armistice. They recalled only that the German Left—Socialists, Communists, and Jews, in common imagination—had surrendered German honor to a disgraceful peace when no foreign armies had even set foot on German soil. Meanwhile the specter of a forthcoming Communist threat, in the wake of the Bolshevik Revolution in Russia and of short-lived Communist revolutions or coups in Hungary, shifted German political sentiment decidedly toward right-wing causes.

Radical rightwing activists like Adolf Hitler, whose Nazi Party had attempted to depose the government of Bavaria and commence a "national revolution" in the November 1923 Beer Hall Putsch, served only nine months of a five year prison sentence for treason—which was a capital offense. During the prison sentence he wrote his political manifesto, *Mein Kampf* (My Struggle).

The difficulties imposed by social and economic unrest in the wake of World War I and its peace terms and the fear for a Communist takeover in the German middle classes worked to undermine pluralistic democratic solutions in Weimar Germany. They also increased public longing for more authoritarian direction, a kind of leadership which German voters found in Adolf Hitler and his National Socialist Party.

Finally, the destruction and catastrophic loss of life during World War I led to what can best be described as a cultural despair in many former combatant nations. Disappointment with international and national politics and a sense of distrust in political leaders and government officials filled the minds of a public which had witnessed the devastations of the war. Most European countries had lost virtually a generation of their young men.

In the United States public opinion favored a return to isolationism; such popular sentiment was at the root of the US Senate's refusal to agree to the Versailles Treaty and approve US membership in President Wilson's own proposed League of Nations.



Figure 36: Armistice Day - 11th/11/1918 at 11am.

Now do Activity.

**Activity 11.3.1.13**

-
1. Why was there hyperinflation in Germany after the war?

2. What is the 'Weimer Republic'?

3. The social and economic chaos after WW1 gave rise to _____ parties in Germany.

4. Define:

(a) Putsch

(b) Mein Kampf

5. Why did the USA public favored to return to *Isolationism*?

Check your answers at the end of sub unit 11.3.1

Sub topic 11.3.1.14: Russia and the Revolutions

In this sub topic, you will look at Russia and its Revolutions in 1917.

By the end of this sub topic, students should be able to:

- define revolution
- explain reasons why the revolutions were not inevitable
- explain the revolutions of 1917

The Russian Revolution took place in 1917 when the peasants and working class people of Russia revolted against the government of Tsar Nicholas II. They were led by Vladimir Lenin and a group of revolutionaries called the Bolsheviks. The new communist government created the country of the Soviet Union.



Figure 37: The food shortage riots in Russia.

The Russian Tsar

Before the revolution, Russia was ruled by a powerful monarch called the Tsar. The Tsar had total power in Russia. He commanded the army, owned much of the land, and even controlled the church.

During the period of time before the Russian Revolution, life for the working class people and the peasants was very difficult. They worked for little pay, often went without food, and were exposed to dangerous working conditions. The aristocrat class treated the peasants like slaves, giving them few rights under the law and treating them almost like animals.

Bloody Sunday

A major event leading to the Russian Revolution took place on January 22, 1905. A large number of workers were marching to the Tsar's palace in order to present a petition for better working conditions. They were fired upon by soldiers and many of them were killed or injured. This day is called Bloody Sunday. Before Bloody Sunday many peasants and working class people revered the Tsar and thought that he was on their side. They blamed their troubles on the government, not on the Tsar. However, after the shootings, the Tsar was perceived as an enemy of the working class and the desire for revolution began to spread.

World War I

In 1914, World War I began and Russia was at war with Germany. A huge Russian army was formed by forcing working class and peasant men to join. Although the Russian army had great numbers, the soldiers were not equipped or trained to fight. Many of them were sent into battle without shoes, food, and even weapons. Over the next three years, nearly two million Russian soldiers were killed in battle and nearly another five million were wounded. The Russian people blamed the Tsar for entering the war unprepared and getting so many of their young men killed.

The February Revolution

The people of Russia first revolted in early 1917. The revolution began when a number of workers decided to strike. Many of these workers got together during the strike to discuss politics. They began to riot. The Tsar, Nicholas II, ordered the army to suppress the riot. However, many of the soldiers refused to fire on the Russian people and the army began to mutiny against the Tsar. After a few days of riots, the army turned against the Tsar. The Tsar was forced to give up his throne and a new government took over. The government was run by two political parties: the Petrograd Soviet (representing the workers and soldiers) and the Provisional Government (the traditional government without the Tsar).

Bolshevik Revolution

Over the next several months the two sides ruled Russia. One of the main factions of the Petrograd Soviet was a group called the Bolsheviks. They were led by Vladimir Lenin and believed that the new Russian government should be a Marxist (communist) government. In October 1917, Lenin took full control of the government in what is called the Bolshevik Revolution. Russia was now the first communist country in the world.



Figure 38: Lenin leading the Bolshevik Revolution



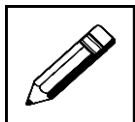
Results

After the revolution, Russia exited World War I by signing a peace treaty with Germany called the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk. The new government took control of all industry and moved the Russian economy from a rural one to an industrial one. It also seized farmland from landholders and distributed it among the peasants. Women were given equal rights to those of men and religion was banned from many aspects of society. From 1918 to 1920, Russia experienced a civil war between the Bolsheviks (also called the Red Army) and the anti-Bolsheviks (the White Army). The Bolsheviks won and the new country was called the USSR (United Soviet Socialist Republic).

Interesting Facts about the Russian Revolution

- For 303 years the Russian Tsar came from the House of Romanov.
- Although the February Revolution began on March 8 according to our calendar, it was February 23 on the Russian (Julian) calendar.
- Sometimes the Bolshevik Revolution is referred to as the October Revolution.
- The main leaders of the Bolsheviks were Vladimir Lenin, Joseph Stalin, and Leon Trotsky. After Lenin died in 1924, Stalin consolidated power and forced Trotsky out.
- Tsar Nicholas II and his entire family were executed by the Bolsheviks on July 17, 1918.

Now do Activity.



Activity 11.3.1.14

1. When did the Russian Revolutions take place?

2. What were the causes of the Revolutions?

(a) February



(b) October

3. Who was the Russian Tsar at the time of the revolutions?

4. What happened on 'Bloody Sunday'?

5. Who were the Bolsheviks and the Mensheviks?

6. Fill in the table on the Civil War and Revolution

Events	Date/Time	Who was involved?	Outcome/Consequences
(a) Revolution 1 st			
(b) Revolution 2 nd			
(c) Civil War			

Check your answers at the end of sub unit 11.3.1

**Sub topic 11.3.1.15: Timeline of the main events of World War I**

In this sub topic, you look at the timeline of the main events of WW1.

By the end of this sub topic, you should be able to:

- define timeline
 - identify the main events of the First World War
 - draw a timeline
-

World War 1 was sparked by the assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand in 1914 and ended with the Treaty of Versailles in 1919. Find out what happened in between these momentous events in this WWI timeline.

1914

- June 28 - Archduke Franz Ferdinand, heir to Austria-Hungary's throne, and his wife, Sophie, are assassinated by Serbian nationalist Gavrilo Princip.
- July 28 - Austria-Hungary declares war on Serbia.
- August 1 - Germany declares war on Russia.
- August 3 - Germany declares war on France.
- August 4 – Great Britain declares war on Germany, after Germany invades Belgium.
- August 6 - Austria-Hungary declares war on Russia and Serbia declares war on Germany.
- August 26 - The Battle of Tannenberg begins.
- August 19 - U.S. President Woodrow Wilson announces the U.S. will remain neutral.
- September 5 - The First Battle of the Marne begins. Trench warfare begins as soldiers on both sides dig in.
- October 19 - Battle of Ypres begins.
- November 3 – Great Britain blockade of goods into Germany.
- December 24 the unofficial Christmas truce is declared.

1915

- February 4 - Germany declares a submarine warfare around Great Britain.
- February 19 - The Dardanelles Campaign begins.
- April 22 - The Second Battle of Ypres begins. First use of poison gas.
- April 25 - The Battle of Gallipoli begins.
- May 7 - The British ocean liner *RMS Lusitania* is sunk by German U-boat, U-20
- September 5 - Tsar Nicholas II takes personal control over Russia's armies.

**1916**

- February 21 - The Battle of Verdun begins. The longest and was one of the bloodiest.
- May 31 - The Battle of Jutland, the major naval battle of the war, begins.
- July 1 - The Battle of the Somme begins. Tanks are first introduced into battle.

1917

- January 19 - Germany sends the secret Zimmerman Telegram to Mexico to entice Mexico to join the war. The British intercept and decipher the coded message.
- March 15 - Russian Tsar Nicholas II abdicates.
- April 6 - The United States declares war on Germany.
- July 31 - The Battle of Passchendaele (also known Third Battle of Ypres) begins.
- November 7 - The Bolsheviks overthrow the Russian government.
- December 17 - The armistice agreed between Russian and Central Powers.

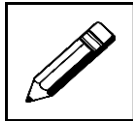
1918

- January 8 - U.S. President Woodrow Wilson issues his Fourteen Points to peace.
- March 3 - Treaty of Brest Litovsk , peace treaty between Russia / Central Powers.
- March 21 - Germany launches the Spring Offensive.
- April 21 - German flying ace, Baron M Richthofen (Red Baron), is shot down.
- July 15 - The Second Battle of the Marne begins.
- November 9 - German Kaiser Wilhelm II abdicates and flees Germany.
- November 11 - Germany signs the armistice at Compiegne, France. Fighting ends on the 11th hour of the 11th day of the 11th month.

1919

- June 28 - The Treaty of Versailles officially ends WWI.

Now do Activity.

**Activity 11.3.1.15**

1. When did the following events take place?

- | | |
|---|-------|
| a) Assassination of the Archduke and his wife | _____ |
| b) Germany gives Austria the Blank Cheque | _____ |
| c) The Battle of Marne | _____ |
| d) The Battle of Somme | _____ |
| e) Use of poisonous gas | _____ |
| f) Use of Tanks for the first time | _____ |
| g) Tannenberg Battle | _____ |
| h) Masurian Lake Battle | _____ |
| i) Jutland Battle | _____ |
| j) Russian Revolution | _____ |
| k) Germany signs the Armistice | _____ |
| l) Signing of the Treaty of Versailles | _____ |

Check your answers at the end of sub unit 11.3.1

**Sub topic 11.3.1.16: World War I and its consequences**

In this sub topic, you look at the immediate causes of World War 1.

By the end of this sub topic, the students should be able to:

- Identify the causes of the war
 - Explain the reasons which have been suggested for the escalation of the war, and who was to blame for the war
-

World War I shook the world. Never before had technology been put to such destructive ends, never before had a war been so global in scope. Although the guns fell silent following the *Armistice of Compiegne* in November of 1918, the impact of the war continues to be felt to this day.

The war resulted in the death of empires and the birth of nations, and in national boundaries being redrawn around the world. It ushered in prosperity for some countries, while it brought economic depression to others. It influenced literature. It changed culture. The impact of World War I was monumental. Let's explore the political, economic, and social consequences of the Great War.

The Political Impact of World War I

The collapse of Russia under the pressure of total warfare allowed socialist revolutionaries to seize power, and turn one of the world's growing ideologies into a major European force. While the global revolution that Lenin believed was coming never happened, the presence of a huge and potentially powerful communist nation in Europe and Asia changed the balance of world politics.

The German, Russian, Turkish and Austro-Hungarian Empires all fought in World War One, and all were swept away by defeat and revolution. The fall of Turkey in 1922 and Austria-Hungary were probably not that much of a surprise: Turkey had long been regarded as the sick man of Europe, while Austria-Hungary appeared close behind. But the fall of the young, powerful and growing German Empire, when the people revolted and the Kaiser was forced to abdicate, was a shock. In their place were a series of new governments, from democratic republics to socialist dictatorships.

The rise of Nazism and fascism included a revival of the nationalist spirit and a rejection of many post-war changes. Communist and fascist movements around Europe drew strength from this theory and enjoyed a new level of popularity. These feelings were most pronounced in areas directly or harshly affected by the war. Adolf Hitler was able to gain popularity by utilizing German discontent with the still controversial Treaty of Versailles. World War II was in part a continuation of the power struggle never fully resolved by World War I. Furthermore, it was common for Germans in the 1930s to justify acts of aggression due to perceived injustices imposed by the victors of World War I.



Nationalism had been growing in Europe for decades before World War One, but the aftermath saw a major rise in new nations and independence movements. Part of this was to do with Woodrow Wilson's commitment to 'self-determination', and part to the destabilization of old empires and the chance for nationalists to take advantage and declare new countries. The key region for European nationalism was Eastern Europe and the Balkans, where Poland, the three Baltic States, Czechoslovakia, the Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes and more emerged. But nationalism conflicted hugely with the ethnic make-up of this region of Europe, where many different nationalities and ethnicities all lived merged with one another, and where self-determination and national majorities created disaffected minorities who preferred the rule of a neighbour.

Under the Treaty of Versailles, Germany's most important concession was the giving of **Alsace-Lorraine** to France. This area had been the subject of dispute between France and Germany for a long time. This area bordering the two countries had been given to Germany following its victory in the Franco-Prussian War in 1871. For decades afterwards, France wanted it back. As victorious powers in World War I, France and Great Britain jointly controlled Saarland for a period of fifteen years. Other parts of Germany were given to the newly independent country of Poland and to Denmark.

Coinciding with the end of World War I, a socialist revolution broke out in Germany. The German Revolution of 1918-1919 resulted in the creation of the left-leaning Weimar Republic, which lasted until Adolf Hitler's Nazi Party seized power in the early 1930s.

Following its defeat, the Austro-Hungarian Empire broke up into several independent states. Among the most prominent were Poland, Czechoslovakia, Yugoslavia, Hungary, and Austria. The Ottoman Empire also split apart. Portions of the former empire were placed under the control of France and Great Britain, such as Syria and Palestine, while the bulk of the empire emerged as the Republic of Turkey.

Discontent with World War I also helped bring about the Russian Revolution of 1917. In this revolution, the Russian Empire was toppled and replaced by a socialist government led by Vladimir Lenin. In north Eastern Europe, new states emerged that had formerly been a part of the Russian Empire. Among them were Estonia, Finland, Latvia, and Lithuania.

Mandates, territorial concessions, and independence movements took place throughout the world, not just in Europe. For example, the League of Nations mandated that the colony of German East Africa be partitioned to Belgium, France, and Portugal. The Austro-Hungarian, Ottoman, and Russian Empires fractured into numerous independent nations.

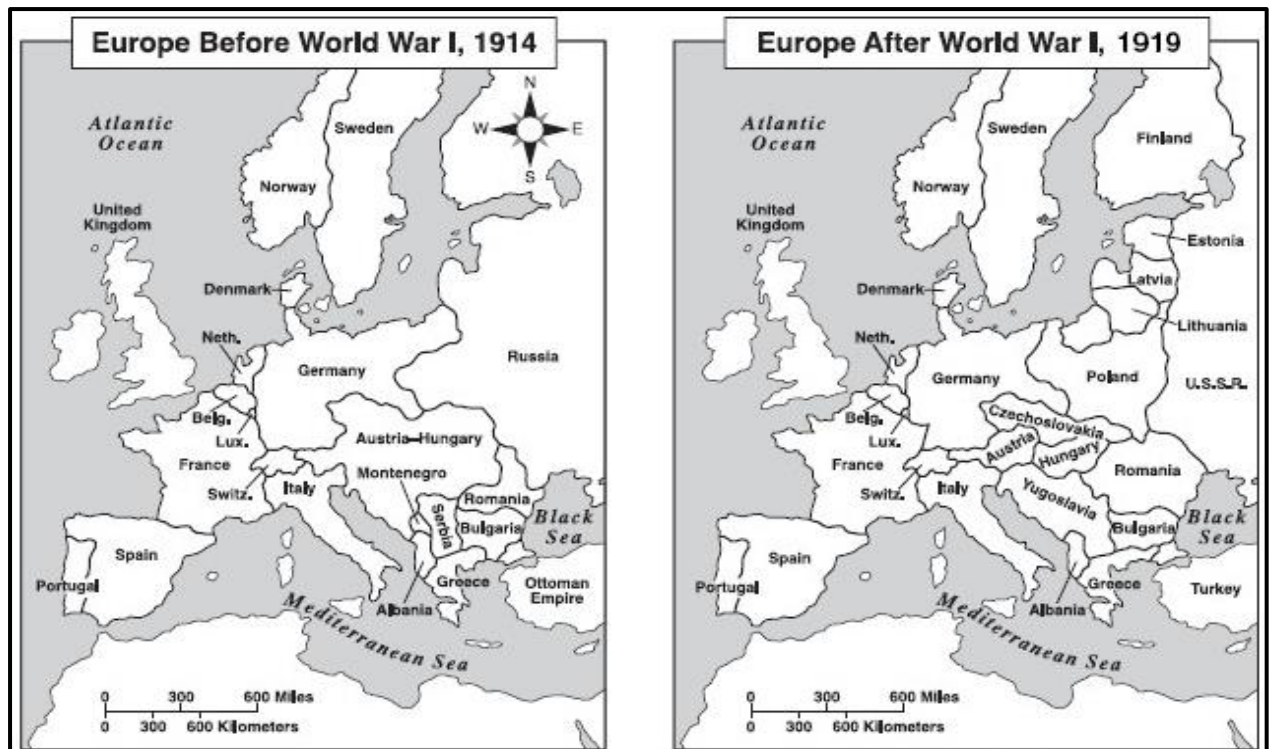


Figure 39: Map of Europe before and after the War

It can be argued convincingly that the United States emerged from World War I as the world superpower. Because of U.S. intervention and President Woodrow Wilson's diplomatic leadership, America had now become the 'saviour of Europe.' The United States left World War I with a major confidence boost.

The Economic Impact of World War I

Unlike in some European countries, the United States was not laid to waste by war. America's factories and country sides were unharmed and performing better than ever. World War I sped up American industrial production, leading to an economic boom throughout the 'Roaring Twenties.'

While the war was a devastating experience for France and the United Kingdom, these countries were able to recover economically without too much difficulty. It was Germany, however, that particularly suffered following the war. Under the Treaty of Versailles, Germany was required to make monetary payments to the Allies, called reparations. The heavy reparations, combined with the devastated economic infrastructure throughout Germany and political tension under the Weimar Republic, led to an **economic depression**.

Hyperinflation and unemployment in Weimar Germany were staggering. Reichsmarks, the German currency, became so devalued, that it took wheelbarrows full of money to buy basic items, such as a loaf of bread.

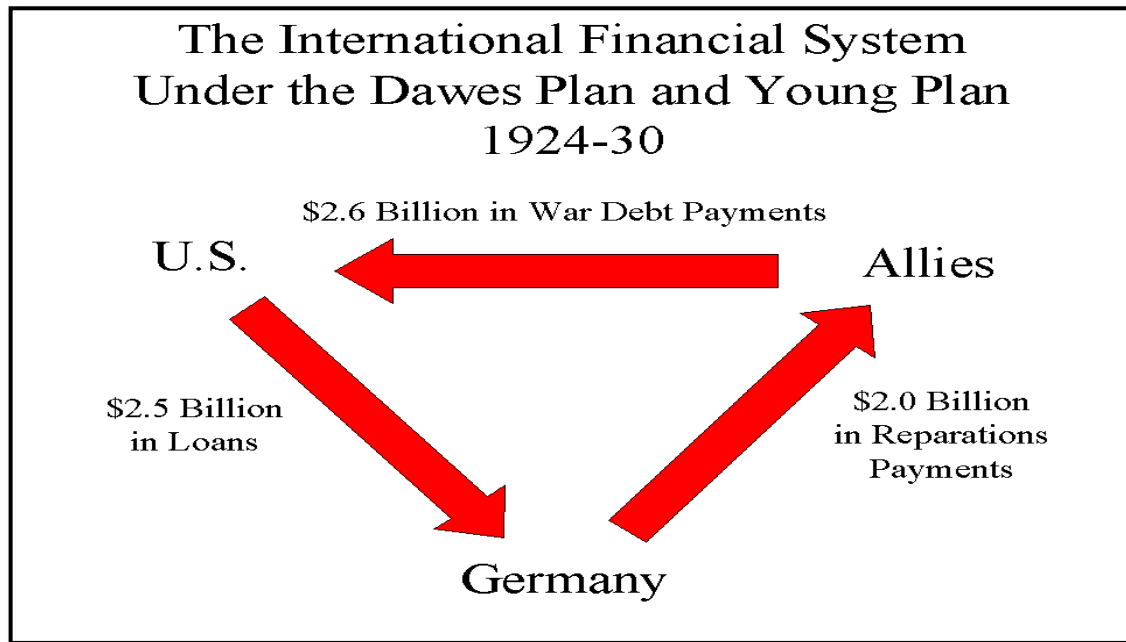


Diagram 2: The Dawes and Young Plans

In the mid to late 1920s, the German economy stabilised somewhat, but after the American stock market crashed in 1929, the Great Depression spread to Germany. From 1929 into the early 1930s, depression again wreaked havoc on German society. It was under these conditions that the Nazis were able to come to power.

One of the most dramatic effects of the war was the expansion of governmental powers and responsibilities in Britain, France, the United States, and the Dominions of the British Empire. To harness all the power of their societies, governments created new ministries and powers. New taxes were levied and laws enacted, all designed to bolster the war effort; many have lasted to this day.

In all nations, the government's share of GDP increased, surpassing 50 percent in both Germany and France and nearly reaching that level in Britain. To pay for purchases in the United States, Britain cashed in its extensive investments in American railroads and then began borrowing heavily on Wall Street. President Wilson was on the verge of cutting off the loans in late 1916, but allowed a great increase in US government lending to the Allies. Britain still owed the United States \$4.4 billion of World War I debt in 1934, and this money was never repaid.

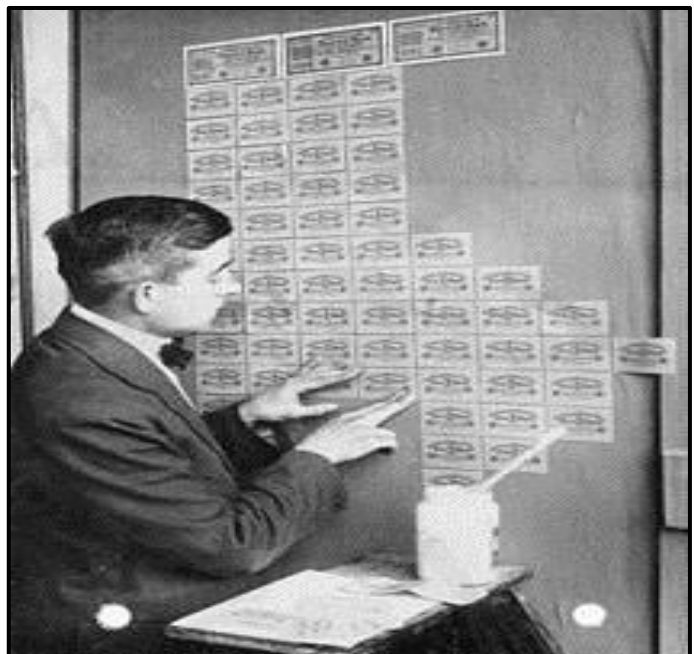


Figure 40: Hyperinflation reduced German banknotes' value so much that they could be used as wallpaper.



With the death of the man, primary wage earner, women were forced into the workforce in unprecedented numbers. At the same time, industry needed to replace the lost labourers sent to war.

World War I further compounded the gender imbalance, adding to the phenomenon of surplus women. The deaths of nearly one million men during the war increased the gender gap by almost a million; from 670, 000 to 1,700, 000. The number of unmarried women seeking economic means grew dramatically. In addition, demobilization and economic decline following the war caused high unemployment. The war increased female employment; however, the return of demobilised men displaced many from the workforce, as did the closure of many of the wartime factories. Hence women who had worked during the war found themselves struggling to find jobs.

In Britain, rationing was finally imposed in early 1918, limited to meat, sugar, and fats, but not bread. The new system worked smoothly. From 1914 to 1918, trade union membership doubled, from a little over four million to a little over eight million. Work stoppages and strikes became frequent in 1917–1918 as the unions expressed grievances regarding prices, alcohol control, pay disputes, fatigue from overtime and working on Sunday, and inadequate housing. Britain turned to her colonies for help in obtaining essential war materials whose supply had become difficult from traditional sources.

Article 231 of the Treaty of Versailles (the so-called "war guilt" clause) stated Germany accepted responsibility for "all the loss and damage to which the Allied and Associated Governments and their nationals have been subjected as a consequence of the war imposed upon them by the aggression of Germany and her allies." In 1921, the total reparation sum was placed at 132 billion gold marks. However, The Allies knew that Germany could not pay" this sum. The total sum was divided into three categories, with the third being "deliberately designed to be chimerical" and its "primary function was to mislead public opinion into believing the" total sum "was being maintained. With the rise of Adolf Hitler, all bonds and loans that had been issued and taken out during the 1920s and early 1930s were cancelled. Thus, following the Second World War, at the London Conference in 1953, Germany agreed to resume payment on the money borrowed. On 3 October 2010, Germany made the final payment on these bonds. By 1929, the Great Depression arrived, causing political chaos throughout the world.

The Social Impact of World War I

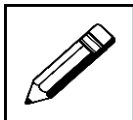
World War I had important effects on society at large. The social trauma caused by unprecedented rates of casualties manifested itself in different ways. Some people were revolted by nationalism and its results, and began to work towards a more internationalist world, supporting organisations such as the League of Nations.

The experiences of the war led to a collective trauma shared by many from all participating countries. The optimism was destroyed, and those who had fought in the war were referred to as the Lost Generation. In most of the Great Powers, it was hard to find someone who had not lost someone to the war. Many other people had been wounded or shell shocked so badly they killed themselves, and these aren't reflected in the figures. For years afterwards, people mourned the dead, the missing, and the many disabled. Many soldiers returned with severe trauma, suffering from shell shock.

The table below is a summary for the consequences of World War 1.

Economic	Social	Political
- The war left all countries Bankrupt/ poor. - Unemployment rose - Inflation rose - Devaluation - Great Britain and other countries borrowed heavily from USA. - German's economy collapsed when it tried to pay reparations. - USA lends money to European countries to recover from WW1. - Great Britain economy dropped and Japan/USA picked up. - Allied forces relied on Germany's reparation to rebuild	- Role of women and their status in society changed. - Women did men's job and dressed like them too. - Fashion Changed. - 10 million people killed and million more displaced. - Cities, farms, town, villages and factories destroyed and left deserted. - People displaced and found themselves in new locations - Millions migrated or flee to other countries like USA, Canada, Australia, New Zealand - Imbalance in population. (sex/age)	- Change in system of government from (Empire) Monarchy to Republic eg Germany, Russia, Austrian-Hungary etc. - Great Britain was the only one with its Monarchy remaining. - Ideologies like Nationalism, communism, liberalism, freedom and equality began to shape the modern world. - More demonstrations change of power into people's hands (revolutions) - Self-Determination and decolonisation were main ideologies to follow.

Now do Activity.



Activity 11.3.1.16

1. Why were all the countries in Europe who fought in the war left bankrupt?

2. Which country did the European countries borrow heavily from?



3. Which two countries pick up their economy after the war?

4. List two social and political consequences of the war.

5. Name the only monarchy that survived after the war.

6. Give two examples of change in system of government.

7. Identify two ideologies that shaped the world after the war.



8. Use the maps of Europe, Name 5 nations that were created after WW1.





9. Do the word search

Wordlist

FRANZ FERDINAND, SCHLIEFFENPLAN ASSASSINATION, WESTERNFRONT
EASTERN FRONT, BRESTLITOVSK, TANNENBERG VERSAILLES, ALLIANCES,
GALLIPOLI ARMISTICE ZEPPELIN, BALKANS, PRINCIP BELGIUM,
JUTLAND, TRENCH, YPRES, SOMME, GAS

World War One Word search

I	N	O	I	T	A	N	I	S	S	A	S	S	A	T	C	F
R	E	G	V	M	V	G	H	M	D	V	L	N	Q	L	I	A
W	W	A	N	G	X	K	X	E	S	N	A	K	L	A	B	L
C	F	S	I	L	O	P	I	L	L	A	G	R	M	O	V	L
C	Y	P	R	E	S	X	M	W	P	I	C	N	I	R	P	I
V	E	R	S	A	I	L	L	E	S	T	R	E	N	C	H	A
Y	M	U	I	G	L	E	B	D	N	A	L	T	U	J	S	N
S	C	H	L	I	E	F	F	E	N	P	L	A	N	G	B	C
O	Y	F	J	W	E	S	T	E	R	N	F	R	O	N	T	E
M	D	Q	K	C	H	J	Z	T	S	J	K	A	H	Q	Q	S
M	Q	Z	J	M	G	U	C	W	P	R	B	T	W	B	M	X
E	J	E	P	H	I	H	M	E	N	I	L	E	P	P	E	Z
E	G	K	E	C	I	T	S	I	M	R	A	L	V	I	G	T
J	J	L	O	T	N	O	R	F	N	R	E	T	S	A	E	Y
Z	W	V	W	G	C	J	G	R	E	B	N	E	N	N	A	T
B	B	R	E	S	T	L	I	T	O	V	S	K	N	X	F	R
K	F	R	A	N	Z	F	E	R	D	I	N	A	N	D	F	K

Check your answers at the end of sub unit 11.3.1



Answers to Activities 11.3.1

Activity 11.3.1.1

1.
 - (a) Nationalism – is an ideology that promotes the belief that one nation is better and powerful than the other and that if need be, to prove it.
 - (b) Militarism – ideology that promotes the buildup and use of military weapons and tactics to rule or demonstrate one's power.
 - (c) Liberalism – ideology that promotes freedom, that groups of people or races and not ruled or controlled by others.
2. Europe was made up of monarch system of great empires ruled by emperors and remained very feudal.

3.

Alliance	Date	Countries
Holy Alliance	1815	Prussia, Russia and Austria
League of Nations	1873	Russia, Austria and Germany
Dual Alliance	1879	Germany and Austria
Entente Cordiale	1904	France and Britain
Triple Entente	1907	France, Britain and Russian
Triple Alliance	1882	Germany, Austria and Italy

4. Cartoon depicts the Scramble for Africa where Great Britain wanted a bigger part of it causing hostility and tension between other European colonisers.
5. Nationalism – Slavic people wanting their own states, Balkan region conflicts, German Aryan race, a superior race, French defeated two times by Germany
Imperialism – The scramble for Africa, Conflict over Morocco,
6. (a) Alliances (b) Alliance (c) Entente (d) Europe (e) Britain (f) worried
(g) militarism (h) Austro- Hungary (i) revenge (j) stolen

Activity 11.3.1.2

1. The first Moroccan Crisis happened in 1905 -1906 and the second Moroccan Crisis was in 1911.
2. The cause of the first Moroccan crisis was Germany declaring independence for Morocco. The second crisis started when the German Gunboat Panther was sent to Agadir to protect German interest during a local native uprising.
3. The Austria-Hungary Empire/Habsburg Empire.
4. Serbia wanted these two provinces because they contained Slavic people.

5.

Wars	Date	Countries	Consequences
Balkan War 1	1912	Balkan League vs Ottoman Empire	Balkan League won
Balkan War 2	1913	Bulgaria vs Serbia and Greece.	Serbia/Greece won

6. The cartoon depicts that the Europeans tried their best to solve the issues of the Balkan region. They did succeed in 1912 and 1913 but unfortunately these issues lead to creating the war climate and to WW1.

7. Crossword



Activity 11.3.1.3

- The assassination of the Archduke Franz Ferdinand and his wife Sophie
- Gavrilo Princip
 - Black Hand
 - Heir to the Austrian- Hungary throne
- Serbia – They supported the Blank Hand gang and they are a Slavic nation close to Bosnia.
- It is a sign of ultimate support and encouragement given by Germany to Austria.
- Schlieffen Plan, a war plan that was designed to quickly attack France through neutral Belgium before turning southwards to encircle the French army on the German border.



6.

-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	F
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-	N	-	-	-	-	-	-	C	-	-	A	E	-	
S	A	R	A	J	E	V	O	I	-	-	N	R	-	S
-	H	-	-	-	-	T	-	T	Z	Z	-	O	-	
N	K	-	-	-	-	Y	-	R	F	E	-	P	-	
O	C	-	-	-	H	-	O	E	G	-	H	-	-	
I	A	-	-	A	-	O	R	O	-	I	-	-	-	
T	L	-	L	-	P	D	V	-	A	-	-	-	-	
C	B	L	-	S	I	N	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
E	P	I	C	N	I	R	P	O	L	I	R	V	A	G
P	-	-	A	A	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
S	-	N	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
N	D	A	I	N	S	O	B	-	-	-	-	-	-	
I	-	N	O	I	T	A	N	I	S	S	A	S	S	A

Activity 11.3.1.4

1. The western side or front of France where WW1 battles were fought against Germany. The front was open with the invasion of Luxembourg and Belgium.
2. The three costly battles are; Verdun, Somme and Passchendaele.
3. First time to use; poison gas, aircraft and war tanks.
4. Great Britain blocked off Germany's sea ports to cut their food and other supplies.
5. Germany responded with – Unrestricted Submarine Warfare.
6.

Marne	Sept 6 th 1914
Somme	July 1 st 1916
Verdun	Feb 21 st 1916
Jutland	31 st May 1916
London air raid	31 st May 1914
Paris air raid	August 30 th 1914
Tannenberg	August 26 th -30 th 1914
Masurian Lake	sept 7 th -14 th 1914 and February 7 th -21 st 1916

7.

- a) This colourless gas is deadly: poisonous gas/chlorine
- b) Used by all soldiers in World War One: rifle
- c) Name of the first tank: Little Willie
- d) A fight between two planes: dogfight
- e) Also known as Blimp :Zeppelin
- f) This gas was first used at Ypres in 1915: field
- g) Tanks were first used at this battle: Somme
- h) These weapons were used by submarines: torpedoes
- i) This American liner was blown up: Lusitania
- j) This gun needed 4 - 6 men to work it: mustard
- k) This type of gun fired shells: machine gun

**Activity 11.3.1.5**

1. Stalemate means no gaining or losing but remaining static or same.
2. With the failure of the Schlieffen Plan and hard resistance for French and Britain, stalemate developed.
3. Both sides dug themselves into trenches after the Marne battle causing stalemate.
4. Marne
5. The Schlieffen Plan was created by General Count Alfred von Schlieffen in December 1905. The Schlieffen Plan was the operational plan for a designated attack on France once Russia, in response to international tension, had started to mobilise her forces near the German border. The execution of the Schlieffen Plan led to Britain declaring war on Germany on August 4th, 1914.

Activity 11.3.1.6

1. Trench warfare is a form of land warfare using occupied fighting lines consisting largely of trenches, in which troops are significantly protected from the enemy's small arms fire and are substantially sheltered from artillery.
2. With the outbreak of World War I, Germany made an attempt at implementing the Schlieffen Plan but failed. The French army was joined by British troops and the Allies put an end to German advances at the Battle of the Marne. Both armies tried to outflank each other in what came to be known as the "Race to the Sea." The German troops, in an attempt to defend their territory, dug a long line of fortified trenches.
3. Western front
4. Three lines of trenches
5. No man's Land
6. Soldiers in the trenches were put into a cycle known as "trench cycle." They spent about sixty days in the front line trenches and another thirty days in the second line support trenches. Then, they served for about 120 days in the reserve trenches and then enjoyed sixty days of leave
7. Trenches were risky and unhealthy and caused diseases like; trench Fever, Severe pains, trench foot, dysentery, Diarrhea, vomiting, and dehydration.

Activity 11.3.1.7

1. They were excited to enlist thinking that the war was going to be short and easily won.
2. They were treated by the public as cowards.
3. It became obvious that the war wasn't going to be short and a quick victory for Great Britain and other countries too.
4. Bombing of the cities in London by Zeppelins, German war planes.
5. The munitions factory in East End of London exploded killing 69 and injuring 400.

**Activity 11.3.1.8**

1.
 - (a) Propaganda -information, especially of a biased or misleading nature, used to promote a political cause or point of view.
 - (b) Conscription-compulsory enlistment for state service, typically into the armed forces
 - (c) Recruitment -the action of enlisting new people in the armed forces.
 - (d) Inflation -a general increase in prices and fall in the purchasing value of money.
 - (e) Rationing -allow each person to have only a fixed amount of (a commodity).
2. Firstly, It achieved its aim through persuasion, fear, guilt, confrontation and accusation. Secondly, it appealed to the emotions of the women, friends and families of those that went to war so they can push them to enlist.
3.
 - (a) The Allies
 - (b) If you take part in the war, you will be happy.
 - (c) Strong men fighting together for their nations. They are doing the right thing.

Activity 11.3.1.9

1. The vast majority of the women were drafted into the civilian workforce to do men's work. Thousands served in the military as support roles and others even fought.
2.
 - (a) Metal work in factories
 - (b) Waged labour
 - (c) Production of textiles
3. Bombings and raids killed a lot of civilians especially women and children. They found themselves homeless due to destruction and most of the time no food and water to have.
4. Women complaining about work, wages and food shortages and led strikes that sparked the Russian revolution.
5. After the war women did men's job and more. They were respected by the men for helping them during time of war. General perception towards women changed after the war.

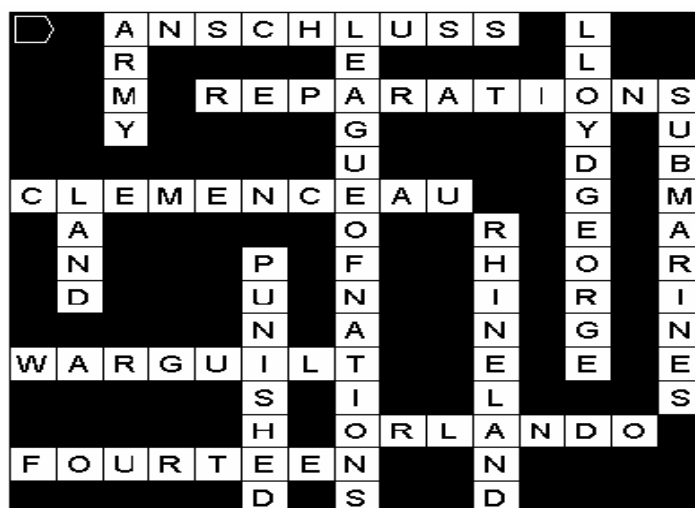
Activity 11.3.1.10

1. National Self Determination means a people should be free to choose their own state and its territorial boundaries. A challenge for principle of territorial integrity where every nation has the right to rule itself.
2.
 - (a) Germany – Treaty of Versailles
 - (b) Austria – Treaty of St Germain
 - (c) Bulgaria – Treaty of Neuilly
 - (d) Hungary – Treaty of Trianon

3. Versailles in France
4. Prime Minister of Great Britain – David Lloyd George, USA President – Woodrow Wilson and Prime Minister for France – Georges Clemenceau.
5.
 - (a) Neuilly
 - (b) St Germain
 - (c) Trianon
 - (d) St Germain
 - (e) Sevres
 - (f) Lausanne

Activity 11.3.1.11

1. Creation of the League of Nations, Writing the five treaties and awarding overseas territories as mandates to the winners.
2. Prime Minister of Great Britain – David Lloyd George, USA President – Woodrow Wilson and Prime Minister for France – Georges Clemenceau, Prime Minister of Italy – Vittorio Orlando
3. A clause which stated that Germany was guilty of starting the war.
4. 6, 600 million British pounds
5. Demilitarised and declared as a no go zone for any military activity or personnel and was a buffer zone.
6. They were made as nations, mandates and protectorates govern by the League of Nations.
7. Polish Corridor - also known as Danzig Corridor, Corridor to the Sea was a territory located in the region of Pomerelia, which provided Poland with access to the Baltic Sea, thus dividing the bulk of Germany from the province of East Prussia.
8. Provinces of Eupen – Malmedy to Belgium, Alsace and Lorraine to France, Schleswig-Holstein to Denmark and West Prussia a new nation of Poland.
- 9.



**Activity 11.3.1.12**

1. 1920 when the big four were writing the Paris Peace settlement.
2. An organisation to help maintain and promote peace and prevent another war.
3. US president Woodrow Wilson.
4. The senate voted against it because they did not want to be burdened with European Affairs.
5. Three successes in smaller nations like; ended fight between Greece and Bulgaria, Between Poland and Lithuania, it arbitrated between Sweden and Finland over the Åland Islands in 1921.

Three failures in the League could not stop wars when powerful nations were involved. Turkey drove the Greeks out of Smyrna in 1922. France invaded the Ruhr in 1923 when the Germans did not pay reparations. Again, in 1923, Italy occupied Corfu. Other treaties such as the Washington Treaty (1921) and the Locarno Pact (1925) are a sign that nations did not think the League could stop wars.

6. The three reasons are:
 - (a) At no stage of its history did the League represent the world balance of forces. The U.S.A. never became its member and Russia stepped in only in 1934.
 - (b) The league did not have the financial and military strength to succeed.
 - (c) Great Britain and France really did not believe in the league and were burdened by it.

Activity 11.3.1.13

1. The war was costly and it had to pay reparations.
2. The Weimar Republic is a name given to the federal republic and semi-presidential representative democracy established in 1919 in Germany to replace the imperial form of government. It is named after Weimar, the city where the constitutional assembly took place. During this period, and well into the succeeding Nazi era, the official name of the state was German Reich (*Deutsches Reich*).
3. Radical right wing
4.
 - (a) Beer Hall Putsch: On November 8, 1923, Hitler, with the help of SA troops and German World War I hero General Erich Ludendorff, launched a failed coup attempt in Bavaria at a meeting of Bavarian officials in a beer hall.
 - (b) Mein Kampf: Meaning "My Struggle," it was the ideological base for the Nazi Party's racist beliefs and murderous practices. Published in 1925, this work detailed Hitler's radical ideas of German nationalism.
5. They did not want to be burdened with a war torn Europe and its affairs.

**Activity 11.3.1.14**

1. 1917
2.
 - (a) The revolution began when a number of workers decided to strike.
 - (b) Many of these workers got together during the strike to discuss politics. They began to riot.
 - (c) Lenin took full control of the government in what is called the Bolshevik Revolution. Russia was now the first communist country in the world.
3. Tsar Nicholas II
4. A major event leading to the Russian Revolution took place on January 22, 1905. A Large number of workers were marching to the Tsar's palace in order to present a petition for better working conditions. They were fired upon by soldiers and many of them were killed or injured. This day is called Bloody Sunday.
5. Bolsheviks led by Vladimir Lenin were a communist faction of the government also known as the red army. Mensheviks were the socialist who were noncommunist also known as the white army.
- 6.

Events	Date	Who was involved	Consequences
a. Revolution 1	February 1917	People/monarchy	Monarchy overthrown. Tsar abdicated his throne.
b. Revolution 2	October 1917	Bolsheviks/Mensheviks	Russia first communist country
c. Civil war	1918-1920	Bolsheviks and Mensheviks	The Bolsheviks won and the new country was called the USSR (United Soviet Socialist Republic).

Activity 11.3.1.15

- (a) 1914, June 28th
- (b) 1914
- (c) September 5th 1914
- (d) July 1st 1916
- (e) April 22nd 1915
- (f) July 1st 1916
- (g) August 26th 1914
- (h) September 7-14 1914
- (i) May 31st 1916
- (j) 1917
- (k) 1918, November 11th
- (l) 1920

**Activity 11.3.1.16**

1. Their economies collapsed because money was spent on the war effort.
2. USA
3. USA and Japan
4. Women change roles and destructions of cities/government systems change and more power in the hands of the people.
5. Great Britain
6. Germany – Empire to Republic. Russia – Empire to Communist Republic
7. Nationalism/Communism/Capitalism/Liberalism
8. Yugoslavia, Czechoslovakia, Austria, Hungary, Lithuania, Latvia, Poland
9. Word search





Sub unit 11.3.2: Australia in New Guinea 1914-1939

Introduction

In this sub unit, you will discuss how Australia looked after New Guinea from 1914 through to 1939. World War 1 started in 1914 and World War 2 1939 in Europe reaching New Guinea in 1942. Both New Guinea and Papua protectorates were already experiencing social and economic developments under the British Australian rule and German.

During these European administrations colonial policies were established outlining the types of changes to take place and how people should behave in society. Not only did changes occur in mainland New Guinea but also in the highlands. The highlands region experienced first contact with the *white men* or Europeans at a much late date in the 1900s. Europeans started exploration of highlands in the 1930s.

While coastal people were learning modern ways of doing things the highlanders were still in traditional attire.

Sub topic 11.3.2.1: New Guinea under Australia Military Administration 1914-20

In this sub topic, you look at Australia looking after New Guinea.

By the end of this sub topic, the students should be able to:

- explain Australian administration in New Guinea
- identify and discuss how this administration helped local people in New Guinea

World War 1 – 1914

Figure 41: Australian squadron entering Simpson Harbour, Rabaul, in September 1914

On the 6th of August 1914, two days after declaring war on Germany, Britain sent an urgent telegram asking the Australian government to send a military force to the island of New Britain in German New Guinea. World War 1 had begun and the British, to prevent the Germans from relaying message to their warships in the Pacific, wanted Australia to take control of the wireless station at Bitapaka. To deal with German New Guinea it was necessary to raise a small force immediately. On the 10th of August, 1914 the Australian Naval and Military Expeditionary Force was enrolled. It consisted of six companies of the Royal Australian Naval Reserve with one battalion of Infantry and a detachment of the Royal Australian Medical Corps. The Commanding Officer was Colonel Holmes who was later the first military Administrator of the Territory of New Guinea.



Figure 42: Colonel William Holmes, military commander of the ANMEF

On the 18th August 1914, Colonel William Holmes left Sydney in command of the Australian Naval and Military Expeditionary Force of 1550 men. Eight days after enlistment the force was embarked on board ship. His orders were to first seize Bitapaka and then take control of the whole colony and keep the copra and rubber plantations working. Germany's 30 year colonial rule in New Guinea was about to end.



As the soldiers were mostly untrained they were landed on Palm Island in Queensland for a few days training. They then embarked again to meet the Australian fleet to Rossel Island – Milne Bay. On the 9th September, 1914, the Australian fleet assembled and Admiral Patey was in command of the battle cruiser *Australia* and others ships and a submarine bound for German New Guinea. Germany was too occupied with the war in Europe to send re-enforcement to defend its possessions in the Pacific. In 1914, Germany had 59 German military personnel and about 1, 000 indigenous policemen spread throughout New Guinea and 240 of them on New Britain.

While waiting for the troops to arrive from Australia, the Australian warships had made a reconnaissance of German New Guinea and entered Blanche Bay on the 12th of August. The Germans had already heard by wireless of the outbreak of the war and the visit by the Australian warships warned them of a forthcoming attack. The acting governor of German New Guinea, Dr. Eduard Haber, although knowing his position was hopeless, decided to at least defend the wireless station. He set up an ambush on the road from Kabakaul on the coast to Bitapaka, about 10 kilometres inland.

Every German was a trained soldier belonging to the Army Reserve. All Reservists were called up and armed and native troops were enlisted and hurriedly trained. The road leading to the Radio Station at Bitapaka was mined in two places and trenches were dug to enable the road to be defended. The Australian Naval and Military Expeditionary Force reached Blanche Bay on the 11th of September, 1914. The troops landed at Kabakaul at 7:00 am and by 7.30 pm, the German flag outside the District Office at Kokopo had been taken down the Union Jack was raised. One road mine was exploded and in short fight one German, 30 New Guineans and 7 Australians were killed.

The natives who were trained by the Germans to show the greatest respect to white men were reluctant to fire on the Australians. Also there were now few Germans to the Australian attack in what is now known as the Battle of Bitapaka. The German troops surrendered and on the 15th of September the acting governor of German New Guinea, Dr Haber, surrendered at Kokopo with all his remaining troops. Holmes sent soldiers to take over German post at Kavieng, Madang, Morobe, Aitape, Lorengau and Kieta. By the end of December 1914, all of German New Guinea was under German Australia. From the 12th September 1914 to the 9th of May, 1921, the territory of New Guinea was governed by the Australian Military, until Australia was given the mandate by the League of Nations to govern New Guinea.

During World War I, New Guinea was occupied by Australia, which had begun administering British New Guinea, the southern part, re-named as Papua in 1904. The League of Nations gave Australia the mandate to administer former German New Guinea. Papua, by contrast, was deemed to be an External Territory of the Australian Commonwealth though as a matter of law it remained a British possession. This difference in legal status meant that Papua and New Guinea had entirely separate administrations, both controlled by Australia.

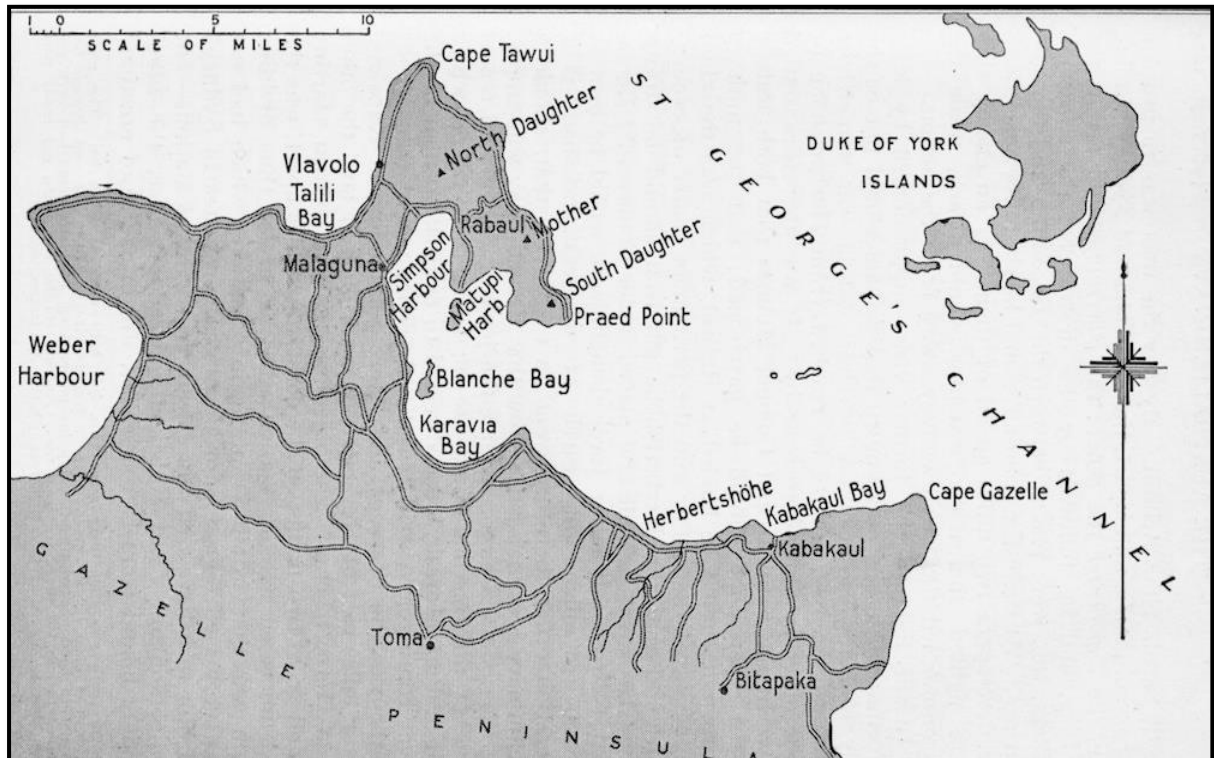


Figure 44: Natives trained by Germans

Australian New Guinea 1914-1920



Figure 45: Australian Patrol officers in Australian Territory



In September 1914, an Australian Expeditionary Force captured Rabaul and German New Guinea became an occupied territory. At the post-war Paris Conference, the Australian Prime Minister put forward an argument for the annexation of the German colony on strategic grounds. It was agreed under the League of Nations Covenant that that Australia would administer the territory as a “C” class Mandate. This provided Australia with responsibility to take charge of the “spiritual interests [of the natives] and their development to a higher development of culture”. However, Australia had its own internal problems to address and the new external responsibility was seen as a burden. The administration for the Mandated Territory of New Guinea, established in May 1921, was expected to operate without external subsidies from the colonial power, in marked contrast to Papua and the former German administration.

German plantations and trading stations were expropriated and war reparations paid to Australia to help pay for the cost of the war. As a consequence, expansion and maintenance of plantations was stifled until the long process of registering assets, tendering and transfer-ring ownership was sorted out. The dynamic economic expansion which characterised the latter period of German colonial administration stagnated as a result of this expropriation process.

An Expropriation Board was established to administer the dispossession of German properties and their transfer to Australian owners. Some 268 plantations, 20 large stores, workshops, shipping facilities and other facilities were subjected to the expropriation process. Plantations were sold to Australian soldier settlers, most of who had little knowledge of or aptitude for agriculture in the tropics. WR Carpenters, an offshoot of the NGK from Western Samoa and Fiji which established an Australian base, bought out most of the NGK holdings.

The Australian trading company Burns Philip (BPs) had established a subsidiary, Choisel Plantations, to establish plantations on Bougainville because the German administration had opposed their entry. BPs took over many former German trading businesses. Soldier settlers who had taken up plantation properties soon faced declining commodity prices as the world economy slid into the Depression and became indebted to their suppliers. BPs took over many of these plantations at that time.

Many plantation labourers and other employees left their jobs when they heard that Australian military has taken over German New Guinea. Holmes under order to keep the plantations in full production to help the war effort, acted quickly to return the situation to normal. Soldiers of the Australian Naval and Military Expeditionary Force had no knowledge of running plantations or working in the tropics, so Holmes decided to make use of German experience. German planters and recruiters after taking an oath of neutrality were allowed to return to their plantations. Profits were not sent back to Germany but invested into Australian Based companies like Burns Philips and W.R Carpenters. Most other Germans who were allowed to stay were colonial officers, traders and missionaries. *Luluais* and *tultuls* appointed by Germans kept their jobs in the 7 years of Australian military rule. The military administration was mostly generals in the Australian army who had no experience of administering a colony.

The German planters took advantage of the Australian Military administration’ lack of colonial experience. They persuaded them to introduce and enforce stricter labour laws than allowed under Governor Hahls rule. Polices favouring planters were introduced. Corporal punishment



like flogging was criticised heavily by Australian newspapers and it was replaced by 'Field Punishment' where men are tied hand and foot, in a star shape for a set time each day over several days. As a result the local people suffered more under Australian military rule than they did under the Germans.

The Battle of Bitapaka was a battle on 11 September 1914, to capture the wireless station at Bitapaka. A mixed force of German officers and Melanesian police mounted a stout resistance and forced the Australians to fight their way to the objective. After a day of fighting during which both sides suffered casualties, Australian forces captured the wireless station.

Now do Activity.



Activity 11.3.2.1

1. What did Britain tell Australia to do two days after declaring war?

2. What was the name of the force sent from Australia?

3. Who was the commanding officer?



4. How many years were the Germans in New Guinea?

5. Describe what happened on September 11th 1914 in Rabaul.

Check your answers at the end of sub unit 12.3.2

**Sub topic 11.3.2.2: Australian Papua (1914-1920)**

In the last sub topic, you looked at Australia in New Guinea. In this sub topic, you look at Australia in Papua between 1914 and 1920. World War 1 started in Europe in 1914.

By the end of this sub topic, the students should be able to:

- Explain the reasons Australians colonised Papua
- Identify and discuss the Australian administration in Papua and how they helped the local people

In 1884, Britain and Germany agreed to split the eastern half of the island of New Guinea between them. Australian Papua was formerly known as British Papua, but after Australia became independent in 1901, it took over British Papuan in 1905 under the Papuan Act. Under this act British Papua was renamed The Australian Territory of Papua. Great Britain knowing that the federated Australia was able to administer British Papua, willingly handed over the territory to them. In 1907, Hubert Murray appointed acting administrator and in 1908 lieutenant governor of Papua. In 1914 war broke out in Europe between Britain and Germany. The war was known as the First World War or the Great War but not all the countries of the world were involved in it. Australia supported Great Britain against Germany and Britain asked Australia to take over German New Guinea.

When Australia took over German New Guinea, it administered German New Guinea and Australian Papua as two separate territories. His sympathetic understanding of the native mind continued to be the strongest influence in his government. His policy had become more defined but its basis was always the "preservation of the native races, even of those weaker peoples who are not yet able to stand by themselves. He encouraged the 'Papua for Papuan' policy. He recognised that natives had their own codes of behaviour, and if these came into conflict with European codes no good could come from what he called the "swift injustice" of punitive expeditions. He preferred to lead his people into better ways and he persuaded them to keep their villages clean, because only inferior races preferred dirt; to pay taxes, because a man who did not do so was a social defaulter; to be vaccinated, because that was a sign of government approval. He trained suitable men to be policemen, and he had Sydney University opened to others to be trained in first aid and rudimentary medicine to fit them to be assistants to white doctors.

Murray was reluctant to impose the death penalty. Only two Papuans were hanged in the last twenty years of his rule while some sixty-five men were hanged in the Mandated Territory of New Guinea. But he administered similar petty discriminatory laws about dress and behaviour, and he legislated for savage penalties for attacks on white women

Native Plantations Ordinance and the head tax

Murray wanted Papuans to grow cash crops themselves and not just work as labourers on European plantations. To encourage this he introduced in 1918, the Native Plantations Ordinance and a head tax. These policies required the people to grow cash crops and pay a head tax. The head tax required the head of the household, usually the husband, to pay a sum



of money as a tax to the colonial authority. People on the coast grew more coconut trees to make copra. In order to pay the head tax, men were forced to work for cash, usually on plantations. For a short time the Mekeo grew rice and the people of the Northern District successfully grew coffee to get money to pay tax.

But on the whole the village plantations were not successful. Resident magistrates tried to force people to work on plantations by gaoling those who did not work on them. This was forced labour. Profits from the plantation were divided among so many people that a man could receive only a few shillings for his share in the years work. Most Papuans got cash by working for Europeans.

Murray's Health Policy

When Murray arrived in Papua little had been done to improve the health of the people apart from the limited service supplied by the missions. Murray slowly increased the amount the colonial authority spent on health. Most, but not all, of this money came from Papuan people who had paid taxes. When Murray left the colony in 1940 there were four hospitals: at Port Moresby and Samarai, patients were treated by trained doctors; at Misima they were cared for by a European medical assistant; and at Gemo Island, in Moresby harbour, tuberculosis and leprosy were treated in isolation. In other areas health services were supplied by rare visits from European and Papuan medical assistants. Most of the medical services of the colony continued to be provided by the missions-partly subsidised by the colonial authority.

Murray's Education Policy

Murray did not establish schools under the colonial authority: he gave money to the missions to provide education. About one-third collected in taxes from the Papuans went to mission schools. But the money received was not enough to pay for basic education but to a limited number of Papuans. By 1940 only 91 Papuans passed what was then the highest standard was 5.

Murray particularly wanted to promote technical and agricultural education. He was prepared to give additional money to the mission school for this purpose. As a result several schools provided technical courses and by 1940 some Papuans had acquired technical skills such as carpentry. The Department of Works also trained apprentices. Murray hoped that Papuans would receive agricultural education to assist them to become better traditional farmers but only one agricultural school was established. This was at Kiriwina in the Trobriands.

The Missions

From 1906 to 1940 the four main Christian missions in British New Guinea extended their activities. The London Missionary Society, the mission with the greatest number of converts, built further stations along the south coast. The Methodist Missionary Society of Australasia worked on a small section of the mainland coast and established stations on all the main islands off the south-east tip of Papua. The Catholic Missionaries of the Sacred Heart continued to be active on Yule Island and among the Mekeo people on the coast. In 1915 they entered London Missionary Society 'territory' when they set out district-quarters in Port Moresby. The Anglicans, with their headquarters at Dogura, consolidated and expanded operations in the Northern District.

In 1908 the Seventh Day Adventist Church began working among the Koiari people and moved into Aroma, Orokololo and Vailala. In 1917 the London Missionary Society lost some territory



and converts to the breakaway Kwato Extension Association, based on Kwato Island which had particular success in the area of technical education and welfare.

The mission were subsidised by the colonial authority and were entirely responsible for education and many of the medical services in the colony. All missions trained Papuans as teachers and medical workers as well as pastors. This was partly to support those activities which were not directly religious. It was also a way of discouraging local customs and practices of which the missionaries disapproved.

As early as 1920 Murray wrote:

the civilising influence which the mere presence of a missionary has upon the native population, and the fact that all native schools in Papua are conducted by missionaries, together with devoted assistance which the missions have in epidemics [is evidence] not only that missions do good but that they are absolutely necessary to the development of backward races.

How were Murray and his policies regarded?

How we judge Murray's attitude and policies depends upon whether we compare with the attitude and policies of other Europeans of the time or what we believe he should have done for Papuans while in office. Murray was regarded by many Europeans as one of the most advanced colonial administrators of his time. He believed that Papuans were inferior to Europeans and provided only the most basic Western education; but at the same time, he thought more highly of Papuans and believed them to be more capable than did most other Europeans at that time.

Murray believed that social and economic change should be introduced slowly. He wanted to ensure that the Papuan people survived. He thought they were most likely to survive if their communities were disturbed as little as possible. He tried to encourage European settlement but protect the local from the worst effects of Western contact.

Most Papuans contacted by the colonial authority respected Murray. They appreciated what he achieved. Ahuia Ova, who had been one of the few English-speaking Papuans on Murray's arrival in 1908, was an old man when Murray died in 1940. Ahuia Ova was the most powerful man in Hohodae, the Koita section of the village of Hanuabada. Murray was a man of great talents. He spoke movingly at the memorial service held after the traditional forty days of mourning.

Governor Murray is dead. He worked until he died. He was governor for thirty years. During all this time we saw all his work and laws and we have seen his good deeds also. When our people were in trouble they went to him and he did not turn them away. In our trouble he gave us help and made us happy again. There was no man like him this way. Wherever he went in Papua he spoke friendly words. He was never harsh towards men, women or children... he was the best of men; our children and their children will talk of him. He promised us all 'I will not leave you I will die in Papua'. His words were the words of a true man, for his body lies in our ground.



Sir Hubert Murray continued to administer Papua until his death in 1940. After his death from lymphatic leukemia in office at Samarai on 27 February 1940, Murray was mourned by all peoples in Papua. On his modest grave in the old Port Moresby cemetery the epitaph in Latin proclaims: 'If you seek a monument look about you'

Now do Activity.



Activity 11.3.2.2

1. When did Great Britain and Germany agree to split the eastern part of New Guinea?

2. When did British Papua become the Australian Territory of Papua?

3. Who was Hubert Murray?

4. What was the basis of Hubert Murray's policies?

5. When did Hubert Murray die and where was he buried?

Check your answers at the end of sub unit 11.3.2

**Sub topic 11.3.2.3: Australian Mandated Territory 1921-1942**

In the last sub topic, you looked Australia in Papua. In this sub topic, you look at the Australian Mandated Territory of New Guinea.

By the end of this sub topic, the students should be able to:

- Explain what Mandated Territory means
 - Identify and discuss the social, political and economic changes between 1921 and 1942
-

At the 1919 Paris Peace Conference following the war, Australian Prime Minister Billy Hughes sought to secure possession of New Guinea from the defeated German Empire: telling the Conference: "Strategically the northern islands (such as New Guinea) encompass Australia like fortresses. They are as necessary to Australia as water to a city."

Article 22 of the Treaty of Versailles provided for the division of Germany and the Central Powers' imperial possessions among the victorious Allies of World War I. In the Pacific, German New Guinea, the Bismarck Archipelago given to Australia as League of Nations Mandates: territories "formerly governed [by the Central Powers] and which are inhabited by peoples not yet able to stand by themselves under the strenuous conditions of the modern world". Article 22 said:

There are territories, such as South-West Africa and certain of the South Pacific Islands, which, owing to the sparseness of their population, or their small size, or their remoteness from the centres of civilisation, or their geographical contiguity to the territory of the Mandatory, and other circumstances, can be best administered under the laws of the Mandatory as integral portions of its territory, subject to the safeguards above mentioned in the interests of the indigenous population.

This mandate was administered by the Australian Government until the outbreak of the Pacific War and Japanese invasion in December 1941 brought about its suspension.

By the 1930s, the Mandated Territory had a foreign population of 4500, four times that of Papua, of whom 1000 were Chinese and 400 German. Some 26,000 New Guineas were indentured labourers, two and a half times that of the southern colony.

It was still a frontier territory, where men were driven by a quest for gold and spirit of adventure. Among the foreign population, men outnumbered women by three to one. A vast, unknown inland was still being explored, with the administration opening its first Highland patrol post at Upper Ramu (later Kainantu) in 1932.

As in Papua, the administration oscillated between competing extremes for development policies. The planters argued that the policy of "providing a book education" was a waste of money and:

the only real education available to the native at present is provided in the homes of the colonists, in the workshops, on the ships, in the Christian Missions, and particularly on the plantations and trading concerns of the planting community.



Figure 46: The Territory of Papua - 1930

Others argued that the “native” must be compelled to work and grow crops for their advancement. From this perspective, recruitment of male villagers for plantation labour was seen as an anachronistic policy to maintain “plantation fodder”. The outcome was conflicting policies which sought to keep the mass of people alive in their villages with as little interference as possible, while at the same time supporting labour recruitment to keep plantations operating. In practice, the need of plantations for labour dominated over support for peasant proprietorship.

There was also inherent contradiction over policy toward Asiatic immigration. Under the German administration, Chinese, Javanese and Japanese labourers had been introduced. The Australian military administration treated all Asians with similar status to Europeans, but under the mandated administration, the Australian Government applied their White Australia policy. Further Asiatic immigration was restricted, thereby making plantation development dependant on local indentured labour.

Now do Activity.

**Activity 11.3.2.3**

-
1. What did Article 22 of the Treaty of Versailles provide?

2. What did the article state?

3. Why did the planters argue that Education for the natives was a waste of time?

4. How did the Asian come to New Guinea?

5. Name some Asians who were in New Guinea?

Check your answers at the end of sub unit 12.3.2

**Sub topic 11.3.2.4: Australian Colonial Policies on Papua New Guinea**

In the last sub topic, you looked at Australian Mandated Territory. In this sub topic, you look at Australian colonial policies on Papua New Guinea.

By the end of this sub topic, the students should be able to:

- Explain what Australian colonial policies were introduced
 - Identify and discuss how these policies affected the people
-

Hubert Murray was regarded by many Europeans as one of the most advanced colonial administrator of his times. He believed Papuans were inferior to the Europeans and provided only the basic western education. However, at the same time he thought highly and felt sympathy for them and tried to protect them and their interest. He believed that their communities would survive if they were disturbed as little as possible. He encouraged European settlement but he tried at the same time to protect the Papuan from too much outside influence. Most Papuans had high regard for him because he lived amongst them and was one of them.

When the war ended in 1918, New Guinea and Papua became the Mandated Territory of New Guinea but was administered separately. In New Guinea, Europeans economic interest was encouraged at the expense of the locals. While in Papua, Murray tried to protect the Papuans and their land and their labour rights. Most of the land in New Guinea was sold to the Europeans or taken over by the European (Australians) after the war. The land was sold to Australian companies like Burns Philips. In 1922, Hubert Murray introduced land policies that where only the colonial authority could buy land from the local people. The colonial officers bought land that the people were willing to sell and lease for fifty years. By 1942, Europeans had owned about 2 percent of the land in the territory. But this 2 percent represent about a quarter of the most fertile and flat agricultural land. In the New Guinea Islands and the Momase Region, especially Madang coast, the local people loss of their gardening and hunting land. Even when the locals were willing to sell their land, the locals did not give up their land willingly, they were did it in fear of the Europeans police and their guns.

Under the Labour policy, labourers had to be recruited through the colonial authority. The land taken over by the Europeans was already more than the available labour force could work. There were not enough people who were prepared to work for cash over a period of time. In 1921, there were 27, 000 labourers in the territory but still that were not enough for the plantations. To compensate for the lack of labourers in the lowlands, some labourers were brought in from the highlands; however, many of them often became sick and sometimes died from malaria. However, improvements in conditions for the labourers following the new labour policy brought more labourers into the workforce. Labour contract for those that work in plantations were different from those in the mines because work was easier in plantations. They worked less hours and Sundays were work free day. They were served with, a blanket, a loincloth, a bowl, a spoon and a mug at the beginning of the year.

In mining areas like Wau-Bulolo, the labourers who worked in the goldfields signed a contract called an Indenture. They worked for a period of time for agreed pay and conditions. By late

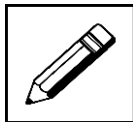


1920s there were regulations governing the indenture system making it hard for the labourers. There were often shortages of food and some labourers died of pneumonia and dysentery. The labourers were also very lonely at times because they were very far from home for a long time.

With all the able bodied males went to work as labourers, the women did the work traditionally done by the men. They would look forward to the time when they would return home with goods from the white men. They did benefit when the men came home with blankets, cooking metal pots, knives and salt.

There was very little western education for the local people in 1920's although some missions did train and educate most of the villagers and provided all medical services.

Now do Activity.



Activity 11.3.2.4

1. Fill in the table.

	Australian Mandated Territory of New Guinea (1920)	Australian Territory of Papua (1920)
a) Administrator		
b) Land Policy		
c) Education policy		
d) Labour Policy		



Sub topic 11.3.2.5: European Contact with the Central Highlands

In the last sub topic, you looked at the Australian colonial policies on Papua New Guinea. In this sub topic, you look at European contact with the Highlands region of Papua New Guinea.

By the end of this sub topic, the students should be able to:

- Discuss European contact with the highlands people
- Identify and discuss the effects of the first contact with the highlands people

In the late 1920s and early 1930s Australian explorers discovered the highlands of Papua New Guinea, home to roughly one million people who had never encountered Europeans before. The move by the colonial authority from Rabaul to Lae encouraged Europeans to make contact with the interior. The first Europeans to reach the highlands were miners and colonial officers. They came for the coast through the Markham and Ramu valleys into the Goroka and Wahgi valleys.

In 1930 Mick and Michael Dwyer ventured to prospect the Ramu tributaries. Tracing the Dunantina they glimpsed the Goroka valley, and then unexpectedly were led south to the junction with the unknown Wahgi where a big population occupied the interior of New Guinea which was thought to be 'simply a continuation of rugged mountains and thick jungles'. They were surprised to find fertile lands with gardens which were densely populated. With only sixteen carriers and few guns, they encountered Highlands groups who perceived them as ancestors and tried to rub off their white skins. They even tried to see if they were human or ghosts by spying on their activities. The highlanders were surprised to see the white men – especially those who arrived by air. The crew crossed the cordillera and descended by canoe to Port Romilly on the Gulf of Papua to learn they had gone over the mainland and discovered the Purari headwaters.

In November 1930 Leahy and Dwyer were the first Europeans into the Gafuku (Asaro) valley. Mick accepted a stake from New Guinea Goldfields Ltd in 1931 and, after aerial reconnaissance, a decisive factor in Highlands exploration and then almost unique to New Guinea, led an expedition into the Watut valley. On a second trip to the Watut, Mick was caught unprepared for a Kuku kuku pre-dawn attack, was battered and partly deafened by a stone club and his brother Paddy was seriously wounded. Mick henceforth went well-convoyed, with fish line and sentinels, practised forbearance but shot to kill. According to his native carriers, 'Masta Mick' never missed; between them some hundred warriors were shot. Women, children and natives were killed; protecting his carrier line and teaching the punishments of killing white men were paramount. His attitude on protective measures was hard as he became increasingly disgusted by Highlanders though he admired their virility and ceremonious skills. However, he lost only one 'boy' through illness during ten expeditions.

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In April with J. L. Taylor, representing an administration urged by the League of Nations to fill in cartographical blanks, the Leahys crossed Chimbu territory to Mount Hagen, tracked the Baiyer River towards the Sepik and, via the lower Jimi, returned to climb Mount Hagen and explore south to the Wahgi-Nebilyer divide. Although Mick providently wrote to his friend, Father William Ross, at Alexishafen, to bring his mission quickly to 'the real New Guinea', he could not take communion because of the native girls who were offered transactionally and who gave themselves so unabashedly to verify, as one acknowledged cheerfully fifty years later, his appetising humanity. To Taylor, Mick said: 'Jim, good country, good climate, good kanakas, too good to find gold in'.

Further expeditions in 1934 began with a punitive sortie against the killers of prospector Bernard McGrath, followed by probes north, south and west of Mount Hagen, the climbing of Papua's highest peak, Mount Giluwe (14,340 feet, 4371 m), the penetration of the Enga to twenty miles (32 km) past Wabag and confirmation that the Wahgi joined the Purari. The Highlands were now open: aerodromes were enthusiastically stamped out by countless bare feet men as demonstrated by the photo below. This photo was taken in Mt Hagen.



Figure 47: Men in Mt Hagen marching to build airstrips

Some of the villagers sent to the coast to bring back amazing tales of white men's cargo. Mick's photographs and films remain a unique record of the saga of 'first contact' in an award-winning film of the same name (1983).

Mick and his brothers settled in New Guinea as farmers. James pioneered the coffee industry and was a principal in the Highlands business, Collins & Leahy.

The Europeans quickly established and expanded an economic, administrative and mission presence in the highlands. By 1938 the 700 Europeans in Mt Hagen required food and labour from the Melpa people especially the 'Moke' and 'Jika' clans. The people sold their food and laboured for shells. They wanted the kina shells for exchange of food and labour so that they could wear them and buy pigs and women with it. The demand for kina shells in the highlands exceeded supply. Europeans airlifted tens of thousands of pearls and other shells of value from the coast and as far as the Torres Strait Islands. As a result, some men became too rich very quickly. They were able to acquire wealth in terms of pigs and women and became '*bigman*' because they were able to trade in Moka ceremonies over a short time.

Fr William Ross, the SVD missionary wrote:

Thousands of these shells were passed around in ten years of white occupation. The result was that natives of the Hagen area became millionaires. The men could go out to the fringe of the area and buy wives with the shells he was gradually hoarding. Where a chief was a great man with three wives, now he could buy eight or ten. Men like Ninji and Wamp from Moge Numbuga tribe and Wak from the Jika Melakimp tribe. Young men with no standing in the community could now raise their status working for the white men, receiving payments in shells.



Figure 48: Fr. William Ross was the first SVD missionary in the highlands of Papua and established himself at a battle field between two Moge warring tribes (Moge Kommenka and Moge Nambuga) and built the then Rebiatul Catholic Mission Station.

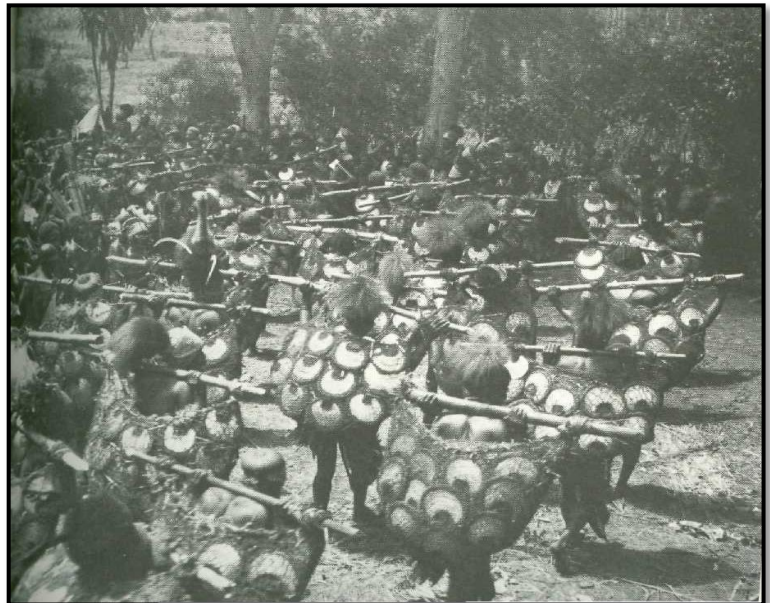
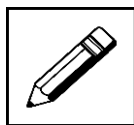


Figure 49: Men handled the shells, they took care of it, polished it and transported them to Moka Ceremonies. Picture taken in late 1930's, net of shells carried to the 'Moka' ceremony – a festive time of trading through exchange of pig and pork meat that is accompanied by singing. They displayed the number of shells they had during the Moka ceremony which was accompanied by pig killing and sing sing. They used the shells to pay bride prize, to buy goods and land.

Now do Activity.

**Activity 11.3.2.5**

2. Which explorers discovered the interior of Papua and New Guinea?

3. In 1930, who were the first Europeans to reach the highlands?

4. Why were the Europeans surprised to see people up there?

5. What did the natives think of the Europeans when they saw them?

6. Who was Fr. William Ross?



6. Refer to Figure 49 and answer the following questions.

(a) What is a 'Moka' ceremony?

(b) What were the shells used for?

(c) Who took care of the shells?

(d) Where did the shells come from and who brought them to the highlands?

Check your answers at the end of sub unit 12.3.2



Answers to Activities 11.3.2

Activity 11.3.2.1

1. Britain sent an urgent telegram asking Australia to take control of the German wireless station at Bitapaka – Rabaul on the island of New Guinea.
2. Australian Naval and Military Expeditionary Force
3. Colonial William Holmes
4. 30 years
5. The Battle of Bitapaka was a battle on 11 September 1914, to capture the wireless station at Bitapaka. A mixed force of German officers and Melanesian police mounted a stout resistance and forced the Australians to fight their way to the objective. After a day of fighting during which both sides suffered casualties, Australian forces captured the wireless station.

Activity 11.3.2.2

1. 1884
2. 1905 under the Papua Act
3. Hubert Murray was an Australian who was the acting administrator of Papua in 1907 and 1908 became Lieutenant Governor of Papua until 1940.
4. Preservation of the Native Race
5. 1940 – Port Moresby at Hanuabada village.

Activity 11.3.2.3

1. Provided for the division of Germany's and central powers imperial possessions among the winners of ww1.
2. The article stated that; There are territories, such as the South Pacific Islands, which, owing to the sparseness of their population, or their small size, or their remoteness from the centres of civilisation, and other circumstances, can be best administered under the laws of the Mandatory as integral portions of its territory, subject to the safeguard in the interests of the indigenous population.
3. The natives must be compelled to work and grow crops for their advancement. Sending them to school is a waste of money and time.
4. Labourers
5. Chinese, Javanese and Japanese

**Activity 11.3.2.4**

	Australian Mandated Territory of New Guinea (1920)	Australian Territory of Papua (1920)
1. Administrator	Colonial William Holmes	Hubert Murray
2. Land Policy	Land taken from natives for plantations.	Land leased from natives but few plantations
3. Education policy	No Education; A few by missionaries	Education to some and mission provided for more
4. Labour Policy	Hard labour , indenture system	Easy labour and for short time

Activity 11.3.2.5

1. Australian explorers
2. Mick Leahy and Michael Dwyer
3. They thought the area was a continuation of rugged mountains and thick jungles with no inhabitants.
4. Their ancestor's ghost returning as white men.
5. Fr. William Ross was the first SVD missionary in the highlands of Papua and established himself at a battle field between two Moke warring tribes and built the then Rebiamul Catholic Mission Station.
6.
 - (a) The Moka Ceremony is a trade system used in Mt Hagen (WHP) between tribes. They exchange pork meat and pigs and other valuables. It is a 2-3 weeks' time of pig killing and sing sing to maintain kinship and cultures.
 - (b) The shells were used as money to buy pig, land and women and for the moka ceremony displaying their wealth.
 - (c) The men kept the shells.
 - (d) Shells were brought in by the Europeans from the coast as far as Torres Strait, Australia



Subunit 11.3.3: Great Depression and Dictatorship

Introduction

In this sub unit, the Great Depression that occurred in America in 1929 and into the 1930s will be discussed and the effects of this event on New Guinea and the world. This period saw a major financial crisis when the value of the American dollar dropped and the U.S economy was greatly affected. This fall in the value of the dollar also affected other industrialised countries. With the world economy affected Germany's Adolf Hitler rose up from the army ranks to dictatorship.

Sub topic 11.3.3.1: The Great Depression

In the last sub topic, you looked at the European contact with the Highlands region of Papua New Guinea. In this sub topic, you look at the causes of the Great Depression that started in the United States and its effects on the world.

By the end of this sub topic, the students should be able to:

- explain what the Great Depression was
- identify and discuss its causes and effects on the world

What was the Great Depression?

The Great Depression, which lasted from 1929 to 1939, was a severe economic downturn caused by an overly-confident, over-extended stock market and a drought that struck the South. In an attempt to end the Great Depression, the U.S. government took unprecedented direct action to help stimulate the economy. Despite this help, the Great Depression finally ended with the increased production needed for World War II.

Stock Market crash

After nearly a decade of optimism and prosperity, the United States was thrown into despair on Black Tuesday, October 29, 1929, the day the stock market crashed and the official beginning of the Great Depression. As stock prices plummeted with no hope of recovery, panic struck. Masses and masses of people tried to sell their stock, but no one was buying. The stock market, which had appeared to be the surest way to become rich, quickly became the path to bankruptcy.



Figure 50: A mother and her hungry kids in the US

And yet, the Stock Market Crash was just the beginning. Since many banks had also invested large portions of their clients' savings in the stock market, these banks were forced to close when the stock market crashed. Seeing a few banks close caused another panic across the country. Afraid they would lose their own savings, people rushed to banks that were still open to withdraw their money. This massive withdrawal of cash caused additional banks to close. Since there was no way for a bank's clients to recover any of their savings once the bank had closed, those who didn't reach the bank in time also became bankrupt.

Businesses and industry were also affected. Having lost much of their own

capital in either the Stock Market Crash or the bank closures, many businesses started cutting



back their workers' hours or wages. In turn, consumers began to curb their spending, refraining from purchasing such things as luxury goods. This lack of consumer spending caused additional businesses to cut back wages or, more drastically, to lay off some of their workers. Some businesses couldn't stay open even with these cuts and soon closed their doors, leaving all their workers unemployed.

The Dust Bowl

In previous depressions, farmers were usually safe from the severe effects of a depression because they could at least feed themselves. Unfortunately, during the Great Depression, the Great Plains was hit hard with both a drought and horrendous dust storms, creating what became known as the Dust Bowl.

Years and years of overgrazing combined with the effects of a drought caused the grass to disappear. With just topsoil exposed, high winds picked up the loose dirt and whirled it for miles. The dust storms destroyed everything in their paths, leaving farmers without their crops.

Small farmers were hit especially hard. Even before the dust storms hit, the invention of the tractor drastically cut the need for manpower on farms. These small farmers were usually already in debt, borrowing money for seed and paying it back when their crops came in. When the dust storms damaged the crops, not only could the small farmer not feed himself and his family, he could not pay back his debt. Banks would then foreclose on the small farms and the farmer's family would be both homeless and unemployed.

Riding the Rails

During the Great Depression, millions of people were out of work across the United States. Unable to find another job locally, many unemployed people hit the road, traveling from place to place, hoping to find some work. A few of these people had cars, but most hitchhiked or "rode the rails." A large portion of the people who rode the rails was teenagers, but there were also older men, women, and entire families who travelled in this manner. They would board freight trains and crisscross the country, hoping to find a job in one of the towns along the way.

When there was a job opening, there were often literally a thousand people applying for the same job. Those who weren't lucky enough to get the job would perhaps stay in a shantytown (known as "Hooverilles") outside of town. Housing in the shantytown was built out of any material that could be found freely, like driftwood, cardboard, or even newspapers.

The farmers who had lost their homes and land usually headed west to California, where they heard rumours of agricultural jobs. Unfortunately, although there was some seasonal work, the conditions for these families were transient and hostile. Since many of these farmers came from Oklahoma and Arkansas, they were called the derogatory names of "Okies" and "Arkies."

Roosevelt and the New Deal

The U.S. economy broke down and entered the Great Depression during the presidency of Herbert Hoover. Although President Hoover repeatedly spoke of optimism, the people blamed him for the Great Depression. Just as the shantytowns were named Hooverilles after him, newspapers became known as "Hoover blankets," pockets of pants turned inside out (to show

they were empty) were called "Hoover flags," and broken-down cars pulled by horses were known as "Hoover wagons."

During the 1932 presidential election, Hoover did not stand a chance at re-election and Franklin D. Roosevelt won in a landslide. People of the United States had high hopes that President Roosevelt would be able to solve all their miseries. As soon as Roosevelt took office, he closed all the banks and only let them reopen once they were stabilised. Next, Roosevelt began to establish programs that became known as the New Deal.

These New Deal programs were most commonly known by their initials, which reminded some people of alphabet soup. Some of these programs were aimed at helping farmers, like the AAA (Agricultural Adjustment Administration). While other programs, such as the CCC (Civilian Conservation Corps) and the WPA (Works Progress Administration), attempted to help curb unemployment by hiring people for various projects.

End of the Great Depression

To many at the time, President Roosevelt was a hero. They believed that he cared deeply for the common man and that he was doing his best to end the Great Depression. Looking back, however, it is uncertain as to how much Roosevelt's New Deal programs helped to end the Great Depression. By all accounts, the New Deal programs eased the hardships of the Great Depression; however, the U.S. economy was still extremely bad by the end of the 1930s.

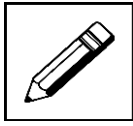


Figure 51: Long lines of people queuing in front of soup kitchens

The major turn-around for the U.S. economy occurred after the bombing of Pearl Harbour and the entrance of the United States into World War II. Once the U.S. was involved in the war, both people and industry became essential to the war effort. Weapons, artillery, ships, and airplanes were needed quickly. Men were trained to become soldiers and the women were kept on the home front to keep the factories going. Food needed to be grown for both the home front and to send overseas. It was ultimately the entrance of the U.S. into World War II that ended the Great Depression in the United States.



Now do Activity.

**Activity 11.3.3.1**

1. When did the Great depression start?

2. Define:

- (a) Great Depression

- (b) Black Tuesday

- (c) Bank Holiday

- (d) New Deal



3. How did the Great Depression start?

4. List four effects of the Great Depression.

5. How did USA try to deal with the Great Depression?

Check your answers at the end of sub unit 12.3.3

Sub topic 11.3.3.2: The Rise of Dictatorship

In the last sub topic, you looked at the Great Depression in America which also had affected other parts of the world. In this sub topic, you look at the Rise of Dictatorship.

By the end of this sub topic, the students should be able to:

- Explain the term dictator
- Identify and discuss the rise of dictatorship in Germany

The three most important dictators to arise in Europe after the First World War were Benito Mussolini in Italy, Joseph Stalin in the Soviet Union and Adolf Hitler in Germany. These men rose to power essentially because their countries had in some way been made unhappy by the outcome of that World War 1 and intensified by the Great Depression.

Mussolini came to power first. His rise was connected in part to the war. In the Treaty of Versailles, the Italians had not gotten what they had been promised when they entered the war. This upset them greatly and led to nationalist sentiment. The war also helped to disrupt the economy and society, opening the way for conflict that led to the rise of the fascists.

Hitler's rise was much more clearly connected to WWI. The Treaty of Versailles had punished Germany harshly. Hitler's rise was grounded on German anger at this treatment and at the "stab in the back" idea that caused Germany to lose WWI. His Nazi ideology was able to capitalize on those emotions. Stalin's rise was also connected to WWI. The ineffectiveness of the Russian war effort had helped to overthrow the old regime. The Bolsheviks were able to take power in part because the war had condemned the monarchy.

WWI contributed to the rise of dictatorship, then, because it caused some countries to be unhappy with the world order that came out of the war. Moreover, the Great Depression added more misery to the peoples existing problems. People needed leaders who could take them out of these miseries and promise peace.

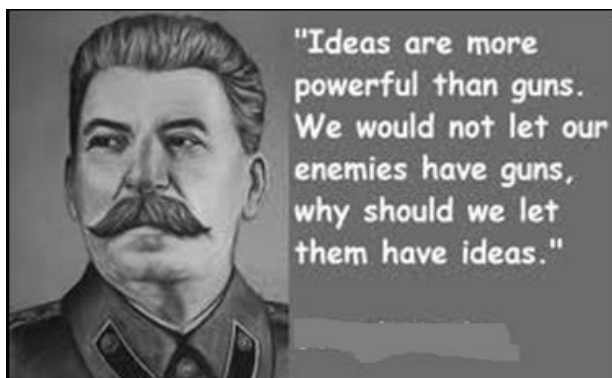


Figure 52: Josef Stalin

The Soviet leader Josef Stalin (1879–1953) was notorious for his oppressive rule. Stalin was born Joseph Dzhugashvili in the Republic of Georgia. The son of a craftsman, he was educated in a theological college, but was expelled in 1899 because of his revolutionary activities. He joined the Bolsheviks in 1903 and was frequently arrested and exiled because of his political involvement. A follower of Lenin (1870–1924), he joined the Bolshevik central committee in 1912. By the time of the 1917 Revolution, he had adopted

the name "Stalin" and was second in command in the Bolshevik organisation in Petrograd

(now St. Petersburg). From 1917, when the Bolsheviks seized power, Stalin built up control of the party machinery. In 1922 he became general secretary of the Communist party's central committee.

Shortly before his final illness, Lenin planned to remove Stalin from his position of power, because he was concerned about his character. He died before accomplishing this and in the power-struggle that followed his death in 1924, Stalin defeated his rivals, and from 1929 exercised a harsh communist dictatorship. He implemented a series of Five-Year Plans, aimed at the Collectivization of Agriculture and industry. At first he ruled as the senior member of a collective leadership, but when even his followers began to oppose him, he seized personal control. In the 1930s Stalin brutally purged those he saw as his opponents, killing millions of people. He used his secret police, Cheka, brutal means and media propaganda to stay in power. Stalin often used purges.

In World War II (1939–1945) Stalin led the Soviet Union to victory and communist ideas spread throughout Europe. Most countries in Eastern Europe became communist after WW2. After the war, he imposed his will on the countries of Eastern Europe opposing capitalism.

Adolf Hitler

A ruthless dictator, Adolf Hitler (1889–1945) led Germany to defeat in World War II.

Born in 1889 at Braunau am Inn, Austria, Hitler was the son of a minor customs officer and his third wife. His father died when he was aged 14, leaving him and his mother badly off. He earned a meagre living as a house-painter and an artist in the Austrian capital, Vienna, during his youth. By the time he moved to Germany in 1912, he had already been exposed to extreme nationalist views. At the outbreak of World War I in 1914, he joined the German army, serving as a corporal in the trenches.

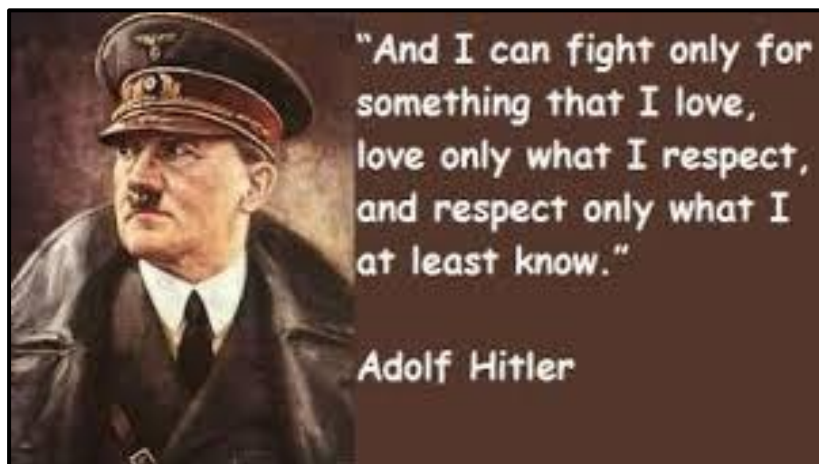


Figure 53: Adolf Hitler

Germany's surrender in 1918 shocked Hitler into political action. In 1919, he joined a right-wing group, and in 1921 he took over a small extremist party, the National Socialist German Workers' party, or Nazi party. He immediately showed a gift for public speaking and a keen understanding of the value of propaganda. He used brutal means and media propaganda to remain powerful.

His first attempt to seize power – the Munich putsch of 1923 – failed, and he was arrested and jailed for five years, although he only served nine months. While there, he wrote *Mein Kampf* (My Struggle). This set out his political philosophy. Hitler held extreme nationalist and racist views: he advocated German supremacy and hatred for Jews.

Once he was released from prison he worked to rebuild his party. By 1930, he was head of a large organisation, which was receiving large funding from German industrialists who were afraid of communism. After the German economy collapsed in 1929, the Great Depression, many disappointed Germans began to support Hitler. Germany needed a savior to get them out of the bog. In 1932, the Nazis became the largest party in the German parliament, and the following year Hitler was appointed chancellor of Germany. He soon eliminated all opposition and established himself as the Führer (leader) of a police state, maintaining a brutal regime in which any dissenters were either killed or imprisoned. His secret police were known as Gestapo and ideologies like Nazism, fascism and scepticism influenced his actions and policies.

As soon as he was secure of his position in Germany, Hitler attempted to restore German power in Europe through Expansionism. He annexed Austria, occupied part of Czechoslovakia, and made alliances with the Italian leader *Benito Mussolini* (1883–1945) and the Spanish leader General *Francisco Franco* (1892–1975). In 1939, he invaded Poland, launching Europe into World War II. Hitler then ordered the “*final solution*” – the attempted extermination of the Jews. Six million Jews were killed, many in specially built death camps such as Auschwitz. By 1941, Hitler was master of most of Europe. His foreign policy and aim to make Germany powerful and dominant in Europe once more was achieved. However, by 1943 the tide had turned in favour of the Allies. That year, Hitler survived an assassination attempt staged by some of his military officers, supported by German industrialists. By the beginning of 1945, Allied forces had comprehensively defeated his armies. On April 30, 1945 he committed suicide in his bunker with his mistress Eva Brown in Berlin.

Benito Mussolini



Figure 55: Benito Mussolini

The politician Benito Mussolini (1883–1945) established a Fascist government in Italy, invaded Ethiopia, and allied his country with Nazi Germany. Mussolini was born in 1883 at Predappio in central Italy, the son of a blacksmith. As a young adult he was extremely left-wing, but was expelled from the Socialist party because he supported Italian involvement in World War I (1914–1918).

After the end of the war, Mussolini formed his own party, whose members came to be known as the *Blackshirts*. In the election in 1921, the Fascists won only 30 seats nationally, but Mussolini was not daunted. On October 30, 1922, he organised the “March on Rome”, forcing the resignation of the premier.

Mussolini formed a coalition government, and by 1926 he had established a dictatorship. Initially, Mussolini enjoyed popular support because of his social program. Fascism is the ideology that governed Mussolini's policies. His foreign policy was *expansionist*, and in 1935 he sent Italian troops to invade Ethiopia. He used secret police like the Blackshirts and other brutal means to stay in power. The following year he formed an alliance with the German dictator, Adolf Hitler (1889–1945).

In June 1940, Mussolini declared war against Britain and France. Italian troops were defeated in North Africa, and in 1943 Italy was invaded by British and American forces. Mussolini was forced to resign in July 1943. The Germans set him up in a short-lived puppet-state in northern Italy, but he was captured by Italian partisans and executed upside down with his girlfriend in the street in 1945.

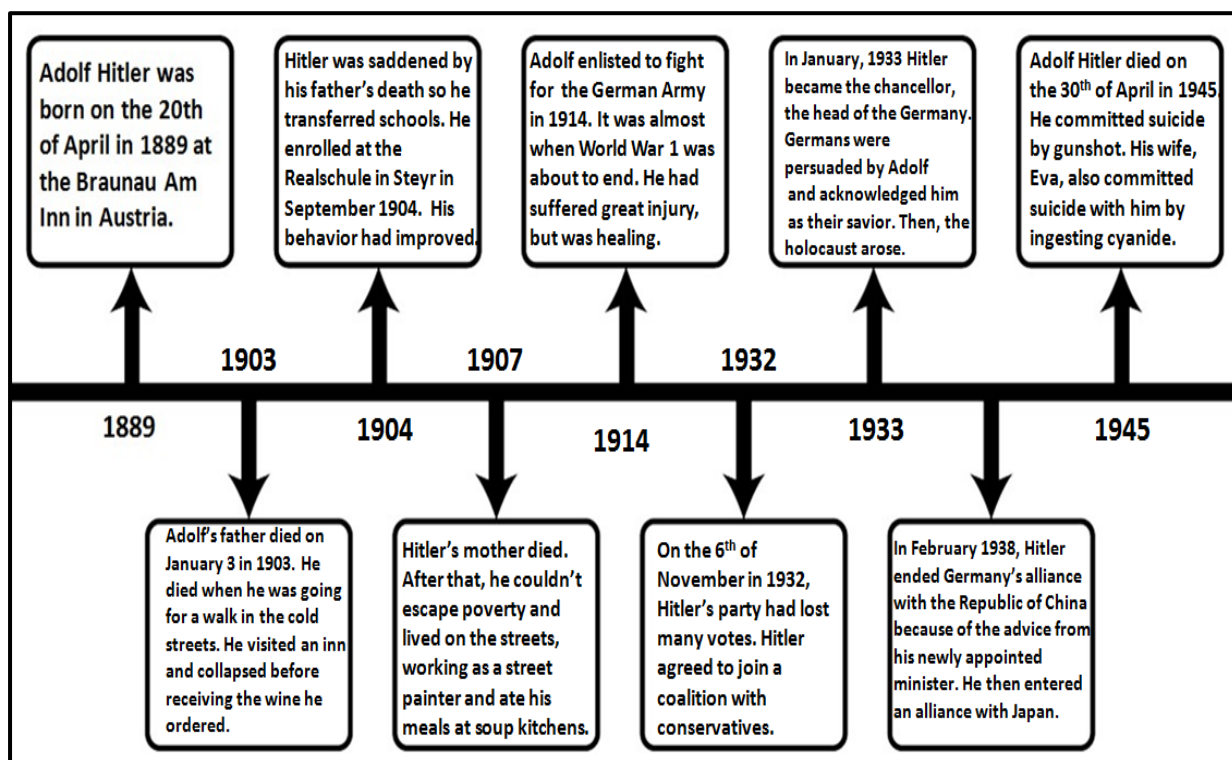
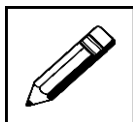


Figure 54: Hitler's life- Timeline

Now do Activity.

**Activity 11.3.3.2**

1. Fill in the table with the correct information.

Dictator	Place	Time of Rule	Ideology	Foreign Policy	Secret Police	Methods to be Powerful	Death

Sub topic 11.3.3.3: Nazism in theory and Practice

In the last sub topic, you looked at the Great Depression in America which also had affected other parts of the world. In this sub topic, you look at the Rise of Dictatorship.

By the end of this sub topic, the students should be able to:

- Explain the term dictator
- Identify and discuss the rise of dictatorship in Germany

According to *Mein Kampf (My Struggle)*, Hitler developed his political theories after carefully observing the policies of the Austro-Hungarian Empire. He was born as a citizen of the Empire, and believed that ethnic and linguistic diversity had weakened it. Further, he saw democracy as a destabilizing force, because it placed power in the hands of ethnic minorities, who he claimed had incentives to further "weaken and destabilize" the Empire.

The Nazi rationale was heavily invested in the militarist belief that great nations grow from military power, which in turn grows "naturally" from "rational, civilized cultures." Hitler's calls appealed to disgruntled German Nationalists, eager to save face for the failure of World War I, and to salvage the militaristic nationalist mindset of that previous era. After Austria and Germany's defeat of World War I, many Germans still had heartfelt ties to the goal of creating a greater Germany, and thought that the use of military force to achieve it was necessary.

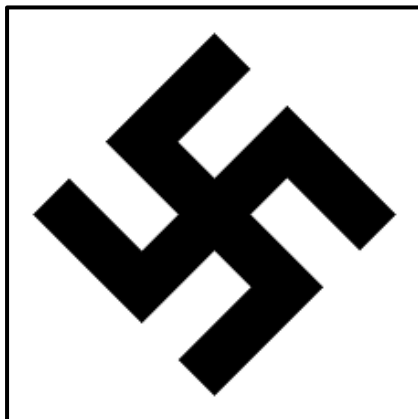


Figure 55: Nazi Swastika

Hitler's Nazi theory also claimed that the Aryan race is a master race, superior to all other races that a nation is the highest creation of a race, and great nations (literally *large* nations) were the creation of great races. These nations developed cultures that naturally grew from races with "natural good health, and aggressive, intelligent, courageous traits." The weakest nations, Hitler said were those of impure or mongrel races, because they have divided, quarrelling, and therefore weak cultures. Worst of all were seen to be the parasitic, mainly Jews, but also Gypsies, homosexuals, disabled and so called anti-socials, all of whom were considered deficient and inferior.

According to Nazism, it is an obvious mistake to permit or encourage multilingualism and multiculturalism within a nation. Fundamental to the Nazi goal was the unification of all German-speaking peoples, "unjustly" divided into different Nation States. Hitler claimed that nations that could not defend their territory did not deserve it. Slave races, he thought of as less-worthy to exist than "master races." In particular, if a master race should require room to live (*Lebensraum*), he thought such a race should have the right to displace the inferior indigenous races.



"Races without homelands," Hitler claimed, were "parasitic races," and the richer the members of a "parasitic race" are, the more "dangerous" they were thought to be. This was the given rationalization for the Nazi's later oppression and elimination of Jews and Gypsies.

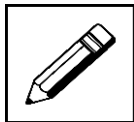
THE NAZISM EXAMPLE

“The political religiosity of Nazism is based on the deification of the Aryan race, the cult of blood, anti-Semitic hatred and the supremacy of Hitler.”

Nazi ideology: Basic Principles

- hated treaty of Versailles (harsh and unfair)
- economic problem is insufficient land to sustain needs of growing population.
- Superiority of German (Aryan) race
- Against Jews and slaves
- Hatred of communism

Now do Activity.



Activity 11.3.3.3

1. Define: Nazism

2. What is the Nazi rationale?

3. List three ideas that were kept in the Mein Kemp?



4. Which race is the master race?

5. How did the Nazi's see the Jews, Homosexuals and Gypsies?

6. What was Nazi's fundamental goal?

Check your answers at the end of sub unit 11.3.3

Sub topic 11.3.3.4: Political ideologies

In the last sub topic, you looked at the Rise of Dictatorship. In this sub topic, you look at different political ideologies.

By the end of this sub topic, the students should be able to:

- explain the phrase political ideologies
- identify and discuss the different political ideologies

ON TARGET

ISM's!

We are basically going to be looking at many of the words ending in -ism, such as liberalism, conservatism, socialism, communism, religious fundamentalism, feminism, totalitarianism etc.





An ideology is a set of beliefs that affects our outlook on the world. Our ideology is our most closely held set of values and feelings, and it acts as the filter through which we see everything and everybody. We simply think that our beliefs are natural and obviously true. Religion is one type of ideology, and religious belief affects a person's views.

- **Anarchism:** Can be grouped around socialistic or individualistic strains. Anarchists believe that the state and forms of compulsory government are harmful or unnecessary to people's lives.
- **Nationalism,** in modern history, movement in which the nation-state is regarded as paramount for the realization of social, economic, and cultural aspirations of a people. Nationalism is characterised principally by a feeling of community among a people, based on common descent, language, and religion. Before the 18th century, when nationalism emerged as a distinctive movement, states usually were based on religious or dynastic ties; citizens owed loyalty to their Church or ruling family. Concerned with clan, tribe, village, or province, people rarely extended their interests nationwide.
- **Communism** is a Political theory advocating community ownership of all property, the benefits of which are to be shared by all according to the needs of each. The theory was principally the work of Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels. The fundamental ideology of communism, it holds that all people are entitled to enjoy the fruits of their labor but are prevented from doing so in a capitalist economic system, which divides society into two classes: non-owning workers and non-worker owners.



- **Socialism** is a System of social organization in which private property and the distribution of income are subject to social control; also, the political movements aimed at putting that system into practice.
- **Capitalism** or free-market economy; or free-enterprise system; Economic system in which most of the means of production are privately owned, and production is guided and income distributed largely through the operation of markets.
- **Liberalism** is a Political philosophy that favors maximising individual liberties. Liberals believe the state's primary function is to protect the rights of its citizens. They may believe that freedom is a matter for the individual alone and that the state should be uninvolved or that freedom is a matter of the state and that the state should actively promote it.
- **Conservatism** is a Political attitude or ideology denoting a preference for institutions and practices that have evolved historically and are thus manifestations of continuity and stability.
- **National Socialism or Nazism**; Totalitarian movement led by Adolf Hitler as head of Germany's Nazi Party (1920-45). Its ideology was shaped by Hitler's beliefs in German superiority and the dangers of communism and need for an enemy. It rejected liberalism, democracy, the rule of law, and human rights, stressing instead the subordination of the individual to the state and the necessity of strict obedience to leaders. It emphasized the inequality of individuals and races and the right of the strong to rule the weak. Politically, National Socialism favored rearmament, reunification of the German areas of Europe, expansion into non-German areas, and the purging of "undesirables," especially Jews.
- **Collectivism** is when any of several types of social organisation that gives central importance to the groups to which individuals belong (e.g., state, nation, race, or social class).
- **Fascism** is the type of government that stresses the primacy and glory of the state, unquestioning obedience to its leader, subordination of the individual will to the state's authority, and harsh suppression of dissent.
- **Totalitarianism** is a form of government that force all aspects of its citizens' lives to the authority of the state, with a single charismatic leader as the ultimate authority.
- **Authoritarianism** is the Principle of total submission to authority, as opposed to individual freedom of thought and action.
- **Zionism** is the Jewish nationalism movement with the goal of establishing a Jewish state in Palestine. In the face of persistent anti-Semitism, Theodor Herzl advocated a Jewish state in Palestine. He held the first Zionist Congress in Basel in 1897. After World War I the movement picked up momentum with the issuing of the Balfour Declaration. The Arab population resisted Zionism, and the British tried unsuccessfully to meet Jewish and Arab demands. Zionism achieved its goal with the creation of Israel in 1948.



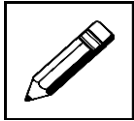
Figure 56: Nazi's plan to solve Germany's economic problems.

- **Judaism** is the religious beliefs and practices of the Jews. Judaism began as the faith of the ancient Hebrews, and its sacred text is the Hebrew Bible, particularly the Torah. Fundamental to Judaism is the belief that the people of Israel are God's chosen people, who must serve as a light for other nations. God made a covenant first with Abraham, then renewed it with Isaac, Jacob, and Moses.
- **Terrorism** is the organised use of violence to create a general climate of fear in a population and thereby to bring about a particular political objective. It has been used throughout history and the world by political organizations of both the left and the right, by nationalist and ethnic groups, and by revolutionaries. The deadliest terrorist attack ever occurred in September 2001, when suicide terrorists hijacked four commercial airplanes and crashed two of them into the twin towers of the World Trade Center complex and one into the Pentagon building in Washington, D.C.; the fourth plane crashed near Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania.



- **Islamic Fundamentalism** is the Conservative religious movement that seeks a return to Islamic values and Islamic law in the face of Western modernism, which is seen as corrupt and atheistic.

Now do Activity.



Activity 11.3.3.4

1. What is an ideology?

2. Match the statements to their ideologies.

- (a) This ideology, supported by propaganda campaigns, demand total conformity on the part of the people. _____
- (b) A key idea is redistribution of resources to redress inequalities inherent in free-market economy. _____
- (c) The ideology belief that the state and forms of compulsory government are harmful or unnecessary to people's lives. _____
- (d) The Ideology is characterized principally by a feeling of community among a people, based on common descent, language, and religion. _____
- (e) It is believed that capitalist system is damaging to interests of masses, and that workers must unite and overturn it by revolutionary means. _____

3. Which ideology supported Jewish national movement?



4. The bombing of the Twin Towers in USA was an act of which ideological belief?

5. This ideology promotes Islamic movements.

Check your answers at the end of 12.3.3

Sub topic 11.3.3.5: Foreign Policies

In the last sub topic, you looked at the different political ideologies. In this topic, you look at foreign policies.

By the end of this sub topic, the students should be able to:

- Explain the phrase foreign policy
- Identify and discuss the different foreign policies



Figure 57: Appeasement policy

Appeasement in a political context is a diplomatic policy of making political or material concessions to an enemy power in order to avoid conflict. The term is most often applied to the foreign policy of the British Prime Minister Neville Chamberlain towards Nazi Germany between 1937 and 1939. His policies of avoiding war with Germany have been the subject of intense debate for seventy years among academics, politicians and diplomats. The historians' assessments have ranged from condemnation for allowing Adolf Hitler's Germany to grow too strong, to the judgment that he had no alternative and acted in Britain's best interests. At the time, these concessions were widely seen as positive, and the Munich Pact concluded on 30 September 1938 among Germany, Britain, France, and Italy prompted Chamberlain to announce that he had secured "peace for our time." Chamberlain's policy of

appeasement emerged from the failure of the League of Nations and the failure of collective security. The League of Nations was set up in the aftermath of World War I in the hope that international cooperation and collective resistance to aggression might prevent another war.

Members of the League were entitled to the assistance of other members if they came under attack. The policy of collective security ran in parallel with measures to achieve international disarmament and where possible was to be based on economic sanctions against an aggressor. It appeared to be ineffectual when confronted by the aggression of dictators, notably Germany's remilitarization of the Rhineland, and Italian leader Benito Mussolini's invasion of Abyssinia.

Why was appeasement reasonable at the time?

- Essential to avoid war after the glimpses of Sino-Japanese war and Spanish civil war, war seemed devastating. They were afraid of innocent civilians dying in bombs.
- Britain was in economic crisis, could not afford rearmament and expenses of Great War.

- British government supported by pacific public opinion. Italy and Germany had grievances. Britain should show sympathy. Remove need of aggression.
- League of Nations was hopeless. Chamberlain thought only way to solve dispute was through face-to-face meetings.
- Economic cooperation would be good for both. If Britain helped economy with trouble, Germany would be grateful.
- Fear of communist Russia spreading.
- Nobody should treat Britain without respect.
- Britain did want to fight Japan in east at same time as fighting Germany in west.
- It would give Britain more time to get stronger, make Germany get scared of Britain.

Hitler's foreign policy goals

Abolish the Treaty of Versailles by retrieving lost land, regain the Saar & expand German territory.

To restore German pride.

Creation of a 'Greater Germany' by uniting all German speaking people in one home land.

Make Germany a world power.

Establish a large empire in Europe where pure Aryans would live. Anschluss (re-unite) with Austria.

Rearmament and re-militarisation of the Rhineland; building up German armed forces.

To expand in the east and take over Poland and the west of the USSR (lebensraum).

To destroy the USSR and remove the threat of communism.

Hitler's Foreign Policy

Hitler launched his own expansionist drive with the annexation of Austria in March 1938, the Anschluss. The way was clear: Mussolini supported him; and the British and French, overawed by German rearmament, accepted Hitler's claim that the status of Austria was an internal German affair. The United States had severely impaired its ability to act against aggression by passing a neutrality law that prohibited

material assistance to all parties in foreign conflicts.

Europe during World War II

By 1942 Germany's powerful war machine had brought most of Europe under its domination, and the Soviet Union was in danger of collapse. The United States lend-lease program and British military supplies helped arm the Soviets, who fought the Germans to a stalemate during the early part of the war. After defeating the Axis powers in northern Africa, the Allies invaded Italy and pushed north, while they began to carry out plans for the largest amphibious assault in history. Following the Normandy invasion the Germans were forced into a defense of their occupied territories on three fronts—the south, east, and west.

Nazi ideology:

- Hated treaty of Versailles (harsh and unfair)
- Economic problem is insufficient land to sustain needs of growing population.
- Superiority of German (pure Aryan) race
- Against Jews and slaves (anti - semitism)
- Hatred of communism

Hitler embarked on an expansionism policy to rebuilt Germany and makes it powerful again. From 1933 onward, Hitler prepared Germany for war. He rearmed the nation, first secretly, then in open violation of the Treaty of Versailles. No nation acted to stop him, because partly of foreign policy of appeasement and so Hitler's steps became bolder. Hitler planned to establish Germany as the world's leading power and to destroy the Jewish people.

In 1936, Hitler sent troops into the Rhineland, again violating the Treaty of Versailles. His generals had opposed this dangerous challenge to France. But Hitler guessed correctly that France would not stop him. The stationing of German troops in the Rhineland was the first of the Nazi dictator's victories without war.

In March 1938, Hitler's troops invaded Austria. Austria then became part of Germany. In September, France and Britain consented to Hitler's occupation of the German-speaking areas of Czechoslovakia that had belonged to Austria-Hungary before World War I ended. After this move, Hitler said he wanted no more territory. But after each success, he planned a new take-over. He took control of the rest of Czechoslovakia in March 1939.

Poland came next on Hitler's list. But Britain and France took action to try to stop any further German expansion. They guaranteed Poland's independence, saying that they would go to war against Germany if Hitler attacked Poland. Hitler doubted that they would do so. In August 1939, Germany and the Soviet Union signed treaties of friendship. They promised mutual cooperation, trade privileges, and neutrality in case of war with other countries. In a secret part of the treaties, the two nations planned to work to divide Poland and much of the rest of Eastern Europe between themselves. On September 1, 1939, Germany invaded Poland. Britain and France declared war on Germany two days later.

US Isolationism Policy



Figure 58: USA practices a policy of Isolationism towards the world



Germany's unregulated submarine warfare against American ships during World War I provoked the U.S. into abandoning the neutrality it had upheld for so many years. The country's resultant participation in World War I against the Central Powers marked its first major departure from isolationist policy. When the war ended, however, the United States was quick to leave behind its European commitment. Regardless of President Woodrow Wilson's efforts, the Senate repudiated the Treaty of Versailles that ended the war, and the United States failed to become a member of the League of Nations.

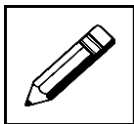
During the 1920s, American foreign affairs took a back seat. In addition, America tended to insulate itself in terms of trade. Tariffs were imposed on foreign goods to shield U.S. manufacturers.



America turned its back on Europe by restricting the number of immigrants permitted into the country. Until World War I, millions of people, mostly from Europe, had come to America to seek their fortune and perhaps flee poverty and persecution. Britons and Irishmen, Germans and Jews constituted the biggest groups. In 1921 the relatively liberal policy ended and quotas were introduced.

The year 1940 signaled a final turning point for isolationism. German military successes in Europe and the Battle of Britain prompted nationwide American rethinking about its posture toward the war. If Germany and Italy established hegemony in Europe and Africa, and Japan swept East Asia, many believed that the Western Hemisphere might be next. Even if America managed to repel invasions, its way of life might wither if it were forced to become a garrison state. By the autumn of 1940, many Americans believed it was necessary to help defeat the Axis — even if it meant open hostilities.

Now do Activity.



Activity 11.3.3.5

1. Define:

(a) Expansionism

(b) Isolationism

(c) Appeasement

2. Why did Hitler embark on a foreign policy of expansionism?



3. What are some main principles of Hitler's foreign policy?

4. Why did USA adopt the policy of isolationism again?

5. When isolationism policies for USA come to a turning point?

6. What was Britain's foreign policy?

7. How did these foreign policies contribute to WW2?

Check your answers at the end of sub unit 12.3.3



Unit Summary 12.3

The Start of the War

World War I began on July 28, 1914, when Austria-Hungary declared war on Serbia. This seemingly small conflict between two countries spread rapidly: soon, Germany, Russia, Great Britain, and France were all drawn into the war, largely because they were involved in treaties that obligated them to defend certain other nations. Western and Eastern fronts quickly opened along the borders of Germany and Austria-Hungary.

The Western and Eastern Fronts

The first month of combat consisted of bold attacks and rapid troop movements on both fronts. In the west, Germany attacked first Belgium and then France. In the east, Russia attacked both Germany and Austria-Hungary. In the south, Austria-Hungary attacked Serbia. Following the Battle of the Marne (September 5–9, 1914), the western front became entrenched in central France and remained that way for the rest of the war. The fronts in the east also gradually locked into place.

The Ottoman Empire

Late in 1914, the Ottoman Empire was brought into the fray as well, after Germany tricked Russia into thinking that Turkey had attacked it. As a result, much of 1915 was dominated by Allied actions against the Ottomans in the Mediterranean. First, Britain and France launched a failed attack on the Dardanelles. This campaign was followed by the British invasion of the Gallipoli Peninsula. Britain also launched a separate campaign against the Turks in Mesopotamia. Although the British had some successes in Mesopotamia, the Gallipoli campaign and the attacks on the Dardanelles resulted in British defeats.

Trench Warfare

The middle part of the war, 1916 and 1917, was dominated by continued trench warfare in both the east and the west. Soldiers fought from dug-in positions, striking at each other with machine guns, heavy artillery, and chemical weapons. Though soldiers died by the millions in brutal conditions, neither side had any substantive success or gained any advantage.

The United States' Entrance and Russia's Exit

Despite the stalemate on both fronts in Europe, two important developments in the war occurred in 1917. When the war started, USA practiced *Isolationism* as a foreign policy and did not want to be part of conflict or issue. However, in April, the United States, angered by attacks upon its ships in the Atlantic, declared war on Germany. Then, in November, the Bolshevik Revolution prompted Russia to pull out of the war.



The End of the War and Armistice

In October 1918 Ludendorff resigned and the German navy mutinied. The end was near. Kaiser Wilhelm II abdicated on November 9th 1918. On 11th November the leaders of both sides held a meeting in Ferdinand Foch's railway carriage headquarters at Compiègne. The Armistice was signed at 6am on the train, see above picture, and came into force five hours later.

Although both sides launched renewed offensives in 1918 in an all-or-nothing effort to win the war, both efforts failed. The fighting between exhausted, demoralized troops continued to plod along until the Germans lost a number of individual battles and very gradually began to fall back. A deadly outbreak of influenza, meanwhile, took heavy tolls on soldiers of both sides. Eventually, the governments of both Germany and Austria-Hungary began to lose control as both countries experienced multiple mutinies from within their military structures.

The war ended in the late fall of 1918, after the member countries of the Central Powers signed armistice agreements one by one. Germany was the last, signing its armistice on November 11, 1918. As a result of these agreements, Austria-Hungary was broken up into several smaller countries. Germany, under the Treaty of Versailles, was severely punished with hefty economic reparations, territorial losses, and strict limits on its rights to develop militarily.



Answers to Activities 11.3.3

Activity 11.3.3.1

1. 1929 – 1939
2.
 - (a) Great Depression is a time of economic turndown when people suffered.
 - (b) Black Tuesday is the time when the stock markets on Wall Street crashed.
 - (c) Time when the banks were closed so congress to reform legislations.
 - (d) Series of laws and schemes introduced by Roosevelt to pull America out of Depression
3. Over spending and investment lead to people selling their shares on the stock market. When many investors started doing that the stock market crashed.
4. Unemployment rose high, Income fell, and Construction halted, Hunger, Starvation, homeless, Poverty etc.
5. Rosevelt in his first 100 days in office as president, introduced and implemented The *New Deal*

Activity 11.3.3.2

Dictator	Time of Rule	Ideology	Foreign Policy	Secret Police	Methods to be Powerful	Death
Adolf Hitler, Fuhrer Germany	1933 to 1945	Nazism, Nationalism Anti-Semitism Aryanism Totalitarianism	Expansionism Great European power	Gestapo Swastika	Propaganda, Use of fear and Terror, Secret Police, Advocate violence, Injustice/corruption, One party system.	Suicide with Eva Brown, 1945
Franco Francisco El Caudillo	1939 to 1975	Fascism Nationalism Totalitarianism	Neutral during WW2 Nationalism and Industrial Expansion	Falange Espanola	Propaganda, Use of fear and Terror, Secret Police, Advocate violence, Injustice/corruption, One party system.	Died – illness Natural death
Joesph Stalin Man of steel Russia	1924 to 9153	Communism Nationalism Stalinism Totalitarianism Socialism	Industrializatio n Expansionism	Cheka (KGB)	Propaganda, Use of fear and Terror, Secret Police, Advocate violence, Injustice/corruption, One party system.	Died while president , ill and natural death



Benito Mussolini Duce Italy	1922 to 1943	Fascism Nationalism Capitalism Totalitarianism	Make Italy become powerful and one. Expansionism	Blackshirts	Propaganda, Use of fear and Terror, Secret Police, Advocate violence, Injustice/corruption, One party system.	Hanged upside by people during the closing of WW2
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Activity 11.3.3.3

1. Nazism; Totalitarian movement led by Adolf Hitler as head of Germany's Nazi Party (1920-45). Its ideology was shaped by Hitler's beliefs in German superiority and the dangers of communism and need for an enemy.
2. Great Nations grow from military power.
3.
 - (a) Democracy is a destabilizing force
 - (b) Aryan race is a superior race
 - (c) Anti-Semitism – hated the Jew and other weaker races.
 - (d) Hated the Treaty of Versailles
4. Aryan Race
5. Impure, weak, contaminated, deficient and inferior.
6. Unification of all German speaking people who were unjustly divided into different nation states.

Activity 11.3.3.4

1. A set of beliefs and value systems that has an effect on our outlook or shape the way we see the world.
10.
 - (a) Fascism
 - (b) capitalism
 - (c) liberalism
 - (d) nationalism
 - (e) Communism
3. Zionism
4. Terrorism
5. Islamic Fundamentalism

Activity 11.3.3.5

1. -Expansionism is a foreign policy embarked on by Hitler to gain more territories because his people needed living space.
-Isolationism is a policy adopted by USA, Japan to stay away from other nation's issues and discourage trade of relationship with other countries.
-Appeasement in a political context is a diplomatic policy of making political or material concessions to an enemy power in order to avoid conflict.
2. Rebuilt Germany to its glory days and create living space for the Aryan Race.



3. Nazi ideology:
 - Hated treaty of Versailles (harsh and unfair)
 - Economic problem is insufficient land to sustain needs of growing population.
 - Superiority of German (pure Aryan) race
 - Against Jews and slaves (anti-semitism)
 - Hatred of communism
4. USA did not want to be burdened with the war torn and bankrupt European countries.
5. 1940
6. Appeasement
7.
 - (a) Appeasement – Britain and France did not check on Hitler and were lenient because of the appeasement policy. Thus leading to WW2.
 - (b) Expansionism - Hitler's expansionism policy of gaining territories lead to WW2, invading Poland with others that lead to WW2
 - (c) Isolationism – USA not taking part in Europe and remaining isolated made Dictators become more aggressive in Europe which lead to WW2.



Glossary

Air Raid Precautions	Measures taken against air attack on British cities. Also the name of the government department in charge of air defense
Allies	Term generally used to describe the USA, British Empire and their allies in WW2
ANZAC	An acronym for the Australian and New Zealand Army Corps, a joint force assembled in early 1915 to participate in the Gallipoli campaign. ANZAC Day (April 25th) is a day of commemoration in both nations.
Arms race	An arms race is a period where two or more nations engage in the rapid production of military technology and equipment, usually in response or rivalry to each other. The arms race and buildup of military equipment and weapons is considered an important cause of World War I.
Armistice	An armistice is a temporary suspension of hostilities in a war, often while a peace treaty is being negotiated. The armistice that ended fighting in World War I was signed at dawn on November 11th 1918 and came into effect at 11 am.
Artillery	Heavy guns
Assassination	Assassination is the murder of a monarch, political leader or other significant figure. Assassinations are usually designed to stimulate
Autocracy	Autocracy is a system of government where all political power and sovereignty is vested in a single ruler, usually a king, tsar or emperor.
Atomic Bomb	Powerful bomb that could destroy cities and used by the USA against Japan in 1945
Auschwitz	Death camp where many thousands of Jews, gypsies and other groups were murdered by the Nazis from 1942-45
Axis	Alliance of Germany, Italy and Japan in WW2
Balkans (or Balkan peninsula)	The Balkans is a large region of south-eastern Europe, bordered by Austria-Hungary to the north, the Black Sea to the east, the Mediterranean Sea to the south and the Adriatic Sea to the west. Nations in the Balkans include Serbia, Bosnia, Greece and Montenegro.
Battle of Bitva Paka	The Battle of Bitva Paka (11 September 1914) was fought south of



Kabakaul, on the island of New Britain, and was a part of the invasion and subsequent occupation of German New Guinea by the Australian Naval and Military Expeditionary Force shortly after the outbreak of the First World War

Bayonet	A bayonet is a long blade that is attached to the barrel of a gun.
Black Hand	Serbian secret society that promoted the idea of having Slavic nations.
Blank Cheque	a sign of ultimate support and encouragement given by Germany to Austria
Blitz	Heavy and frequent bombing raids carried out over British cities, ports and industrial areas from 1940-1941
Blitzkrieg	The German for "lightning war". A swift, sudden military attack using bomber aircraft to support fast moving tanks and motor vehicles.
Camouflage	Covering up weapons, buildings, troops or equipment so that they are difficult to see
Capitalism	Right-wing political system where the principle means of production and distribution are in private hands
Casualties	People killed and/or wounded in war
Censorship	Banning or deleting any information of value to the enemy
Collaborate	To work with, or co-operate with, usually referring to people who co-operated with forces who had taken over their countries
Collective security	security of each member would be guaranteed by the protection of all
Commonwealth	Countries that were formerly part of the British Empire (e.g. Canada, New Zealand)
Communication Trench	Narrow trench constructed at an angle to a defensive trench to permit concealed access to the trench
Communism	Political system that believes in the importance of the working classes and regards individual freedom as less important than the good of society as a whole
Concentration Camp	Camps in Germany used by the Nazis to hold and torture their opponents, not the same as death camps. However, many died in such



camps

Conscription	In January 1916, Parliament passed the first conscription laws (compulsory enrollment) ever passed in Britain. At first only single men and childless widowers aged 18 to 41 were called up.
Convoy	A ship, fleet, or group of vehicles accompanied by a protecting escort
Dawes Plan	The Dawes Plan was an attempt following World War I for the Triple Entente to compromise and collect war reparations debt from Germany. The Dawes Plan (as proposed by the Dawes Committee, chaired by Charles G. Dawes) was an attempt in 1924 to solve the reparations problem, which had bedeviled international politics following World War I and the Treaty of Versailles.
Decolonisation	Refers to when a country frees itself from a colony to form new independence. Often times it means one country freeing itself from another country to form its own system of political and economic ideas. After WWI we saw the Ottoman Empire dissolve and the decolonisation of many colonies in Africa. Overall, the process of decolonisation can be peaceful, but other times it can led to conflict and a revolution.
D-Day	Allied invasion of German held France in June 1944
Death Camp	Camps for killing racial groups, especially Jews, which the Nazis considered to be inferior
Democracy	System of government based on people voting for their leaders with a strong emphasis on the freedom of the individual
Dictator	Person who has complete power and authority over a country.
Dictatorship	Government by a single person with absolute control over the resources of the state
Dreadnought	Very big military battleships with all equipment built in
Dugout	Shelter made in the wall of a trench, varying from a small area that could only accommodate one man (cubby hole), to a deep dugout, ten or more feet underground
Dual Alliance	Military Alliance between Germany and the Austrian Hungary Empire in 1879



Dual Entente	Military Alliance between Russia and France signed in 1894
Dysentery	Serious illness usually caused by poor food or infected water supplies
Enigma	Machine used by German forces to turn their messages into code. It was supposed to be unbreakable but was cracked by British intelligence
Entente Cordial	Alliance between Great Britain and France in 1904
Evacuation	The withdrawal or removal of troops or civilians
Fascism	Originally, the term "fascism" was used by the political movement that ruled Italy from 1922 to 1943 under the leadership of Benito Mussolini. A system of government that opposes individual freedom and democracy, is anti-communist and favours extreme nationalism
Final Solution	Nazi plan to kill the entire Jewish population in Europe dating from spring 1942, although hundreds of thousands of Jews already had been killed by death squads and in mass <i>pogroms</i> before this time
Fire-Step	Step upon the forward face of a trench upon which men stood to fire or observe. The floor of the trench was lower so that the soldiers could walk upright without exposing their heads above the top
Gestapo	German Secret Police
Goering, Hermann	Head of the German Air Force and high-ranking Nazi leader
Hitler, Adolf	Leader of Germany in WW2 and head of the Nazi party
Holocaust	The mass murder of around 6 million Jews and other racial groups by the Nazis in WW2
Hurricane	British fighter plane
Imperialism	The extension of power and rule beyond established geographical boundaries
Infiltrate	To move into an organisation, country or territory, secretly
Lebensraum	This was the name given to Hitler's policy to provide extra "living space" for the German population by conquest of the lands of Eastern Europe and the USSR
League of Nations	was an international association of countries created to maintain peace



among the nations of the world

Luftwaffe

German Air Force

Luluai

Mandates:

Refers to an official order or commission for a specific action to be taken. After WWI, there were mandates established to set regulations regarding territories being transferred between countries

Memorandum

An official note or statement

Midway

Decisive naval battle in 1942 in which the US destroyed several Japanese aircraft carriers

Militarism

Refers to a country's consensus belief that having and maintaining a strong military is a top priority. The idea of militarism would remain relevant in Nazi Germany in between WWI and WW2, as they soon began to build up their military power and later went on to invade Poland. Overall, the rise of militarism in Europe soon became a major contributor in starting WW2 as all the major players felt the need to have a strong military

Monarchy

A form of rule in which the head of state is a King or Queen

Mussolini, Benito

Leader of Italy in WW2 and head of Italian Fascist party

National Government

British government made up of politicians from Conservative, Labour and Liberal parties

Nationalism

The unification of the state and release from foreign rule

Nazi party

Ruling political party in Germany 1933-45, headed by Adolf Hitler. (The National Socialist German Worker's Party)

Oligarchy

A system of government in which virtually all power is held a small number of wealthy people who shape policy to benefit themselves

Panzer

German tank

Paratroopers

Specially trained soldiers who could be dropped by parachute into enemy territory

Propaganda

Spreading a particular message in order to influence public opinion

Ration

To allow only certain amounts of food, gasoline, and other goods to



	each person
Red Army	Army of the Soviet Union or USSR. In 1917, the Red Army was officially renamed the Soviet Army. Fought against the White army in the Russian civil war
Refugee	A person who seeks shelter especially in another country, from war, disaster, or persecution
Resistance	Term used to describe underground forces who fought against German occupation of their countries in WW2
Rommel, Erwin	Leading German commander
Roosevelt, Franklin Delano	American President for almost all of WW2 who died in April 1945
Royal Air Force (RAF)	British air force
Royal Navy (RN)	British navy
Russia	The largest republic in the Union of Socialist Soviet Republics (USSR or Soviet Union). The terms 'Russia' or 'Russians' were often used when strictly the term 'USSR' or 'Soviets' should have been used
Russian Revolution	Russian Revolution of 1917, also called the Soviet Revolution, was a rebellion of the Russian people against the rule of the Russian czar (emperor), Nicholas II. The revolution swept away the ancient Russian monarchy and ultimately laid the foundation of the Soviet Union, by which Russia
Sabotage	A deliberate action to weaken the enemy by destroying equipment in secret raids rather than open attacks
Schlieffen Plan	a war plan that was designed to quickly attack France through neutral Belgium before turning southwards to encircle the French army on the German border
Soviet	Workers councils which gave their name to the USSR
Spitfire	British fighter plane
Stalin, Joseph	Leader of the Soviet Union (USSR) in WW2
Totalitarianism	



	Government control of all activities
Torpedo	Missile fired by submarines and ships designed to sink other surface vessels or submarines
Trench warfare	a form of land warfare using occupied fighting lines consisting largely of trenches, in which troops are significantly protected from the enemy's small arms fire and are substantially sheltered from artillery. The most prominent case of trench warfare is the Western Front in World War I. It has become a byword for stalemate, attrition and futility in conflict.
Tribunal	Type of court in which a group of people are appointed to give judgment on official decisions
Triple Alliance	Alliance between Germany, Austria/Hungary and Italy in 1882
Triple Entente	Alliance between Russia, France and great Britain in 1907
Truman, Harry Tultul	American Vice President for most of WW2 who took over as President after Roosevelt's death in April 1945
U-Boat	English word used for a German submarine or 'U-Boot'
United Nations	Organisation formed in 1945 to replace the League of Nations
United States Army Air Force (USAAF)	American Air Force. Its main role was to bomb German and Japanese cities in WW2
VE-Day	Day marking Victory in Europe and the surrender of Germany on November 11 th 1918



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16	KAVIENG	P. O. Box 284, Kavieng	9842183	72228136	The Coordinator	Senior Clerk	72229069
17	BUKA	P. O. Box 154, Buka	9739838	72228108	The Coordinator	Senior Clerk	72229073
18	MANUS	P. O. Box 41, Lorengau	9709251	72228128	The Coordinator	Senior Clerk	72229080
19	NCD	C/- FODE HQ	3230299 Ext 26	72228134	The Coordinator	Senior Clerk	72229081
20	WABAG	P. O. Box 259, Wabag	5471114	72228120	The Coordinator	Senior Clerk	72229082
21	HELA	P. O. Box 63, Tari	73197115	72228141	The Coordinator	Senior Clerk	72229083
22	JIWAKA	c/- FODE Hagen		72228143	The Coordinator	Senior Clerk	72229085

SUBJECT AND GRADE TO STUDY

GRADE LEVELS	SUBJECTS/COURSES
Grades 7 and 8	1. English
	2. Mathematics
	3. Personal Development
	4. Social Science
	5. Science
	6. Making a Living
Grades 9 and 10	1. English
	2. Mathematics
	3. Personal Development
	4. Science
	5. Social Science
	6. Business Studies
	7. Design and Technology- Computing
Grades 11 and 12	1. English – Applied English/Language & Literature
	2. Mathematics - Mathematics A / Mathematics B
	3. Science – Biology/Chemistry/Physics
	4. Social Science – History/Geography/Economics
	5. Personal Development
	6. Business Studies
	7. Information & Communication Technology

REMEMBER:

- For Grades 7 and 8, you are required to do all six (6) courses.
- For Grades 9 and 10, you must study English, Mathematics, Science, Personal Development, Social Science and Commerce. Design and Technology-Computing is optional.
- For Grades 11 and 12, you are required to complete seven (7) out of thirteen (13) courses to be certified.

Your Provincial Coordinator or Supervisor will give you more information regarding each subject.

GRADES 11 & 12 COURSE PROGRAMMES

No	Science	Humanities	Business
1	Applied English	Language & Literature	Language & Literature/Applied English
2	Mathematics A/B	Mathematics A/B	Mathematics A/B
3	Personal Development	Personal Development	Personal Development
4	Biology	Biology/Physics/Chemistry	Biology/Physics/Chemistry
5	Chemistry/ Physics	Geography	Economics/Geography/History
6	Geography/History/Economics	History / Economics	Business Studies
7	ICT	ICT	ICT

Notes: You must seek advice from your Provincial Coordinator regarding the recommended courses in each stream. Options should be discussed carefully before choosing the stream when enrolling into Grade 11. FODE will certify for the successful completion of seven subjects in Grade 12.

CERTIFICATE IN MATRICULATION STUDIES		
No	Compulsory Courses	Optional Courses
1	English 1	Science Stream: Biology, Chemistry, Physics
2	English 2	Social Science Stream: Geography, Intro to Economics and Asia and the Modern World
3	Mathematics 1	
4	Mathematics 2	
5	History of Science & Technology	

REMEMBER:

You must successfully complete 8 courses: 5 compulsory and 3 optional.